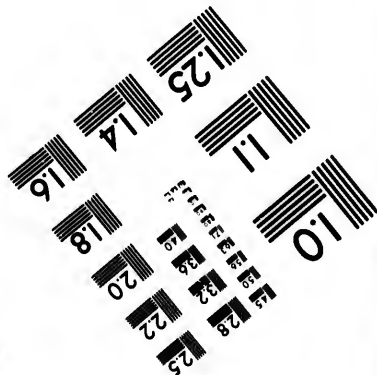
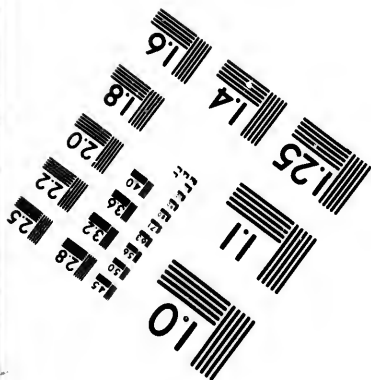
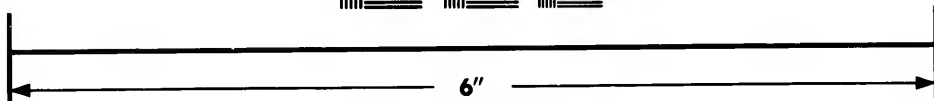
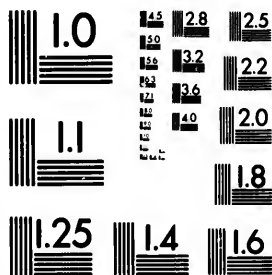


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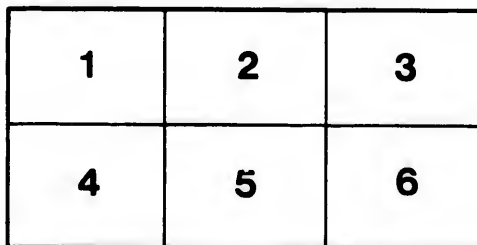
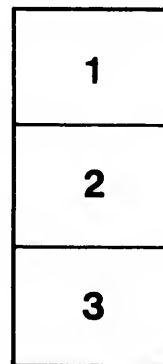
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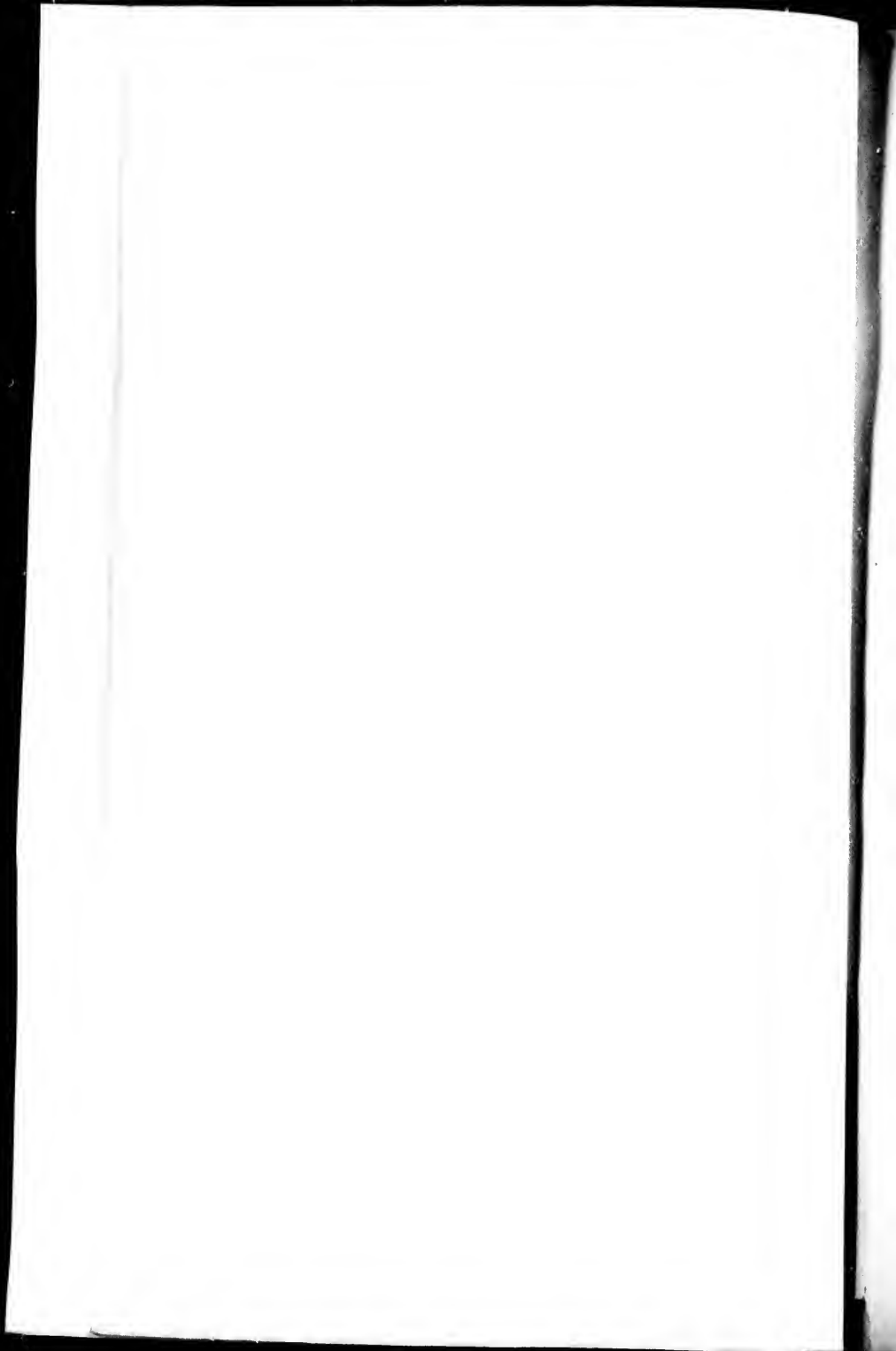
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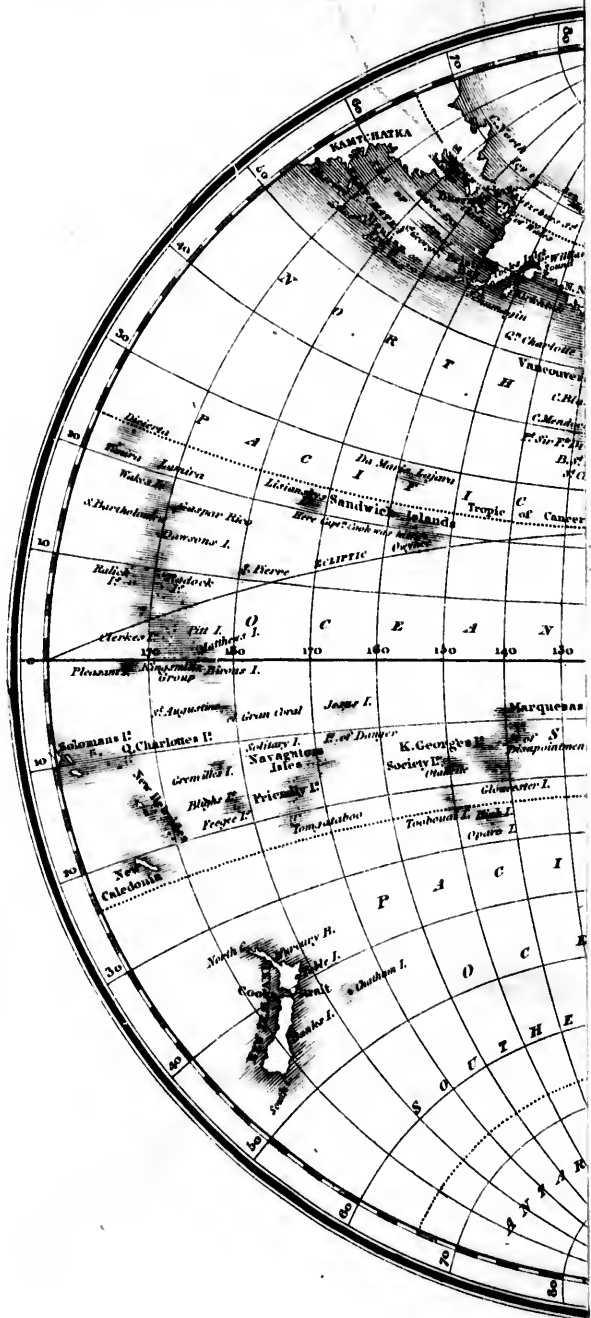
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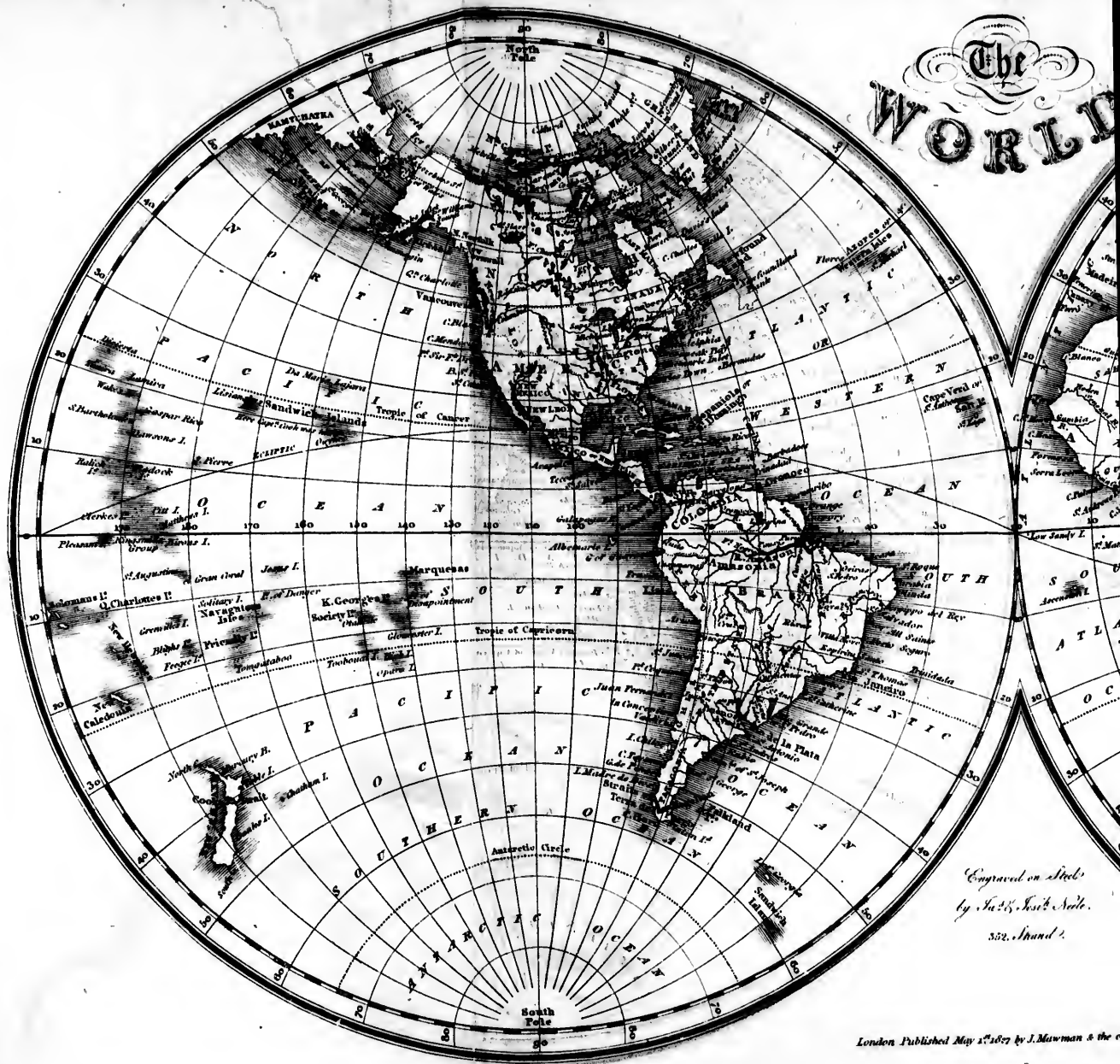
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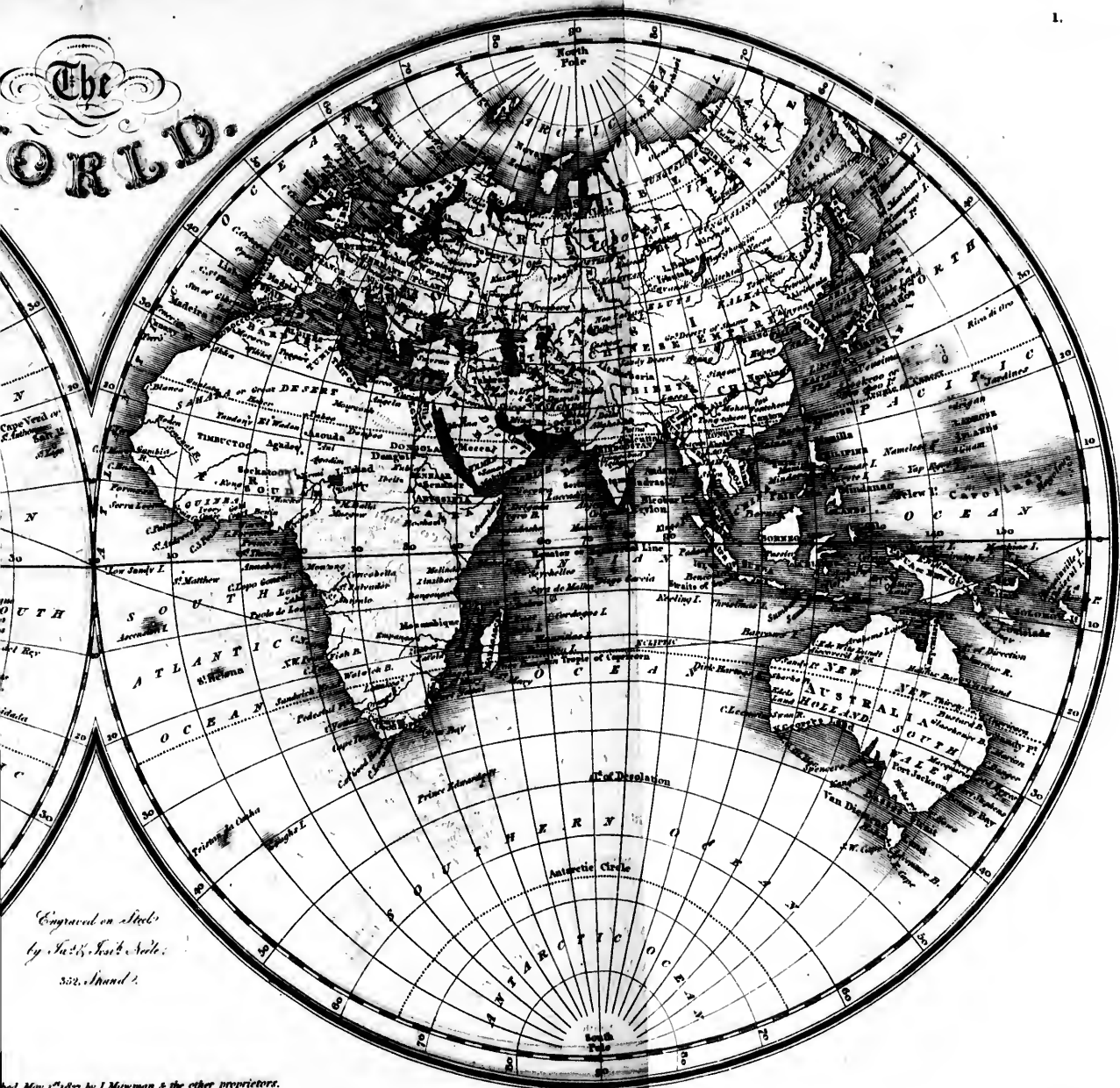


The WORLD



*Engraved on Steel
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502. Strand.*

The WORLD.



Engraved on Steel
by T. S. & Co.
532, Strand.

Printed May 1st 1827 by J. Newman & the other proprietors.

A
GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL,
AND
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GRAMMAR;

EXHIBITING THE
PRESENT STATE OF THE WORLD:

AND CONTAINING,

- I. The Figures, Motions, and Distances of the Planets, according to the Newtonian System, and the latest Observations;
- II. A general View of the Earth, considered as a Planet; with several useful geographical Definitions and Problems;
- III. The grand Divisions of the Globe into Land and Water, Continents and Islands;
- IV. The Situation and Extent of Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, and Colonies;
- V. Their Climates, Air, Soil, Vegetable Productions, Metals, Minerals, Natural Curiosities, Seas, Rivers, Bays, Capes, Promontories, and Lakes;
- VI. The Zoology of each Country;
- VII. Observations on the Changes that have been observed upon the Face of Nature, since the most early Periods of History;
- VIII. The History and Origin of Nations, their Forms of Government, Religion, Laws, Revenues, Taxes, Naval and Military Strength, &c.
- IX. The Genius, Manners, Customs, and Habits of the People;
- X. Their Languages, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce;
- XI. The chief Cities, Structures, Ruins, and artificial Curiosities;

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

- I. A GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX, with the Names of Places alphabetically arranged, and their Latitudes and Longitudes; II. A TABLE of COINS, and their Value in ENGLISH MONEY; III. A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE of remarkable Events, from the Creation to the present Time; and, IV. an OBITUARY of eminent and illustrious Persons, of every Age and Nation.

Geo. Thorne A. No.

By WILLIAM GUTHRIE, Esq.

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

ILLUSTRATED WITH

A NEW AND CORRECT SET OF MAPS.

THE TWENTY-FOURTH EDITION,

STUDIOUSLY REVISED AND CAREFULLY CORRECTED.

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THE world is a most wonderful scene. Its remarkable or rather stupendous construction, and the nature, the movements and operations, of the animated beings who fret their short hours upon it, are, to a contemplative mind, objects of serious reflexion and of intense deliberation. Every one, indeed, who is imbued with a rational spirit, must be desirous of being acquainted with the affairs of the terraqueous globe which he inhabits; he must wish to know its origin, its progress, and every important circumstance connected with it. Of the higher world, or the solar and planetary system, he must also wish to acquire some knowledge, even if it be (as it necessarily is) imperfect. All the intelligence which can be obtained upon these heads will be found in a condensed form in the work which we now recommend to public notice. Long details and minute specifications cannot be expected in a professed compendium: yet we may boldly declare, that our volume is not only sufficiently informative for the middle class of the community and the generality of readers, but is calculated also to furnish amusement and instruction for the superior orders of society. It embraces almost every topic that can be named, except the most frivolous and insignificant; it affords a regular statistic view of every country; it treats of the different forms of religion and government; it traces the course of arts and of refinement, and exhibits curious traits of character, and varied pictures of life and manners.

As every successive edition of a work of this kind requires alterations, amendments, and substitutions, we have diligently attended to our duty in that respect. In our review of the kingdoms and states of Europe, we have endeavoured to procure the latest and most

authentic intelligence. It is unnecessary to particularise all the documents which we have consulted: the mention of some of our authorities will, we hope, suffice. From Dr. Lyall, whose long residence in Russia gave him many opportunities of accurate survey, we have derived considerable and useful information. He was accused by the late emperor of prejudice and consequent falsification; but, although he may have fallen into misconception and error, it does not appear that he has been guilty of wilful mis-statements. We have also profited by Mr. Henderson's communications respecting various parts of the same empire; and Mr. Russell's account of a great portion of Germany has not, to us, been useless or nugatory. From Simond's travels in Switzerland we have borrowed occasional hints: the inquiries and researches of Quin and of Bramsen in Spain have augmented our knowledge of that country; an anonymous writer has favored us with the means of improving our survey of Portuguese manners and customs; and new light has been thrown upon the political state and general concerns of the Turkish empire, but more particularly on the affairs of Greece, now convulsed by that revolt which, we hope, will terminate in the independence even of the degenerate posterity of Pericles and Leonidas.

In our development of the state and circumstances of Asia, we have been materially assisted by the labors of some ingenious and well-informed writers. Sir William Ouseley and Sir Robert Ker Porter have led us over the chief provinces of Persia, and introduced us to the court of the shah; and Mr. Fraser has not only examined Khorasan, a dependency of that realm, with a curious eye, but has investigated, for the information of the public, the state of the romantic regions of Khowarasm and Great-Bokharia. The cultivated plains of China and the mountains of Tibet have been more accurately surveyed, and the wonders of Hindoostan more fully disclosed; and, from the increased connexions of our oriental company, and the late war between that powerful body and the Birmese sovereign, we have derived a mass of additional information respecting the peninsula of India beyond the Ganges.

The progress of discovery in Africa has lately extend-

ed itself to the kingdom of Houssa and the interior of Soudan, and we are in daily expectation of ulterior intelligence from that part of the world. The bold adventurers (major Denham and captain Clapperton), who passed beyond the great desert, and penetrated to the central territories within nine degrees of the equator, have opened a new scene to our view, and we have consequently included in our volume the substance of their interesting discoveries.

To the great changes in America, which promise the most important results, we have devoted a considerable share of attention. The elevation of so many colonies to the dignity of independence, the progress of sanguinary contests, and the present state of each of the new governments, have been noticed with due care. On the first appearance of strong symptoms of discontent, we fanned the rising flame which has since spread from the great Rio del Norte to the strait of Magellan, paralysing in its course the nerves of despotism; and we trust that the spirit of dissension, in the new states, will not be carried to dangerous extremes.

The first voyage of Europeans into that great ocean which bounds America to the northward, may be said to form an æra in navigation; and, although strong doubts may be entertained of the eventual utility of a passage through a sea which is for so short a season in a fluid state, that and the other Arctic voyages of captain Parry have been at least subservient to philosophical curiosity. The ant-Arctic voyage of Weddell is also memorable; and both these navigators seem to think that even the North and the South Poles may be reached.

In addition to the four quarters of the world, two important divisions are rising into increased notice. One is Australasia, the state of which, as far as it is known, we have illustrated by the aid of captain Philip King and Mr. Field; the other is Polynesia, which comprehends the numerous islands of the Pacific Ocean. Of the most flourishing of these,—namely, the Sandwich groupe,—the labors of Mr. Ellis the missionary, and the more recent communications of the present lord Byron, have enabled us to give an accurate description.

When we add to these intimations the announcement of a new set of Maps, surpassing those of the preceding edition in number and in correctness, we may reasonably expect, because we may fairly claim, a continuance of public favor and support.

May 1, 1827.

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PREFACE TO THE EARLY EDITIONS.

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 the agreeable intercourse of society. Among us, learning is no longer confined within the schools of the philosophers, or the courts of the great; but, like all the greatest advantages which Heaven has bestowed on mankind, it is become as universal as it is useful.

This general diffusion of knowledge is one effect of that happy constitution of government which, toward 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 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 which we have chosen, or seems capable of being treated in a manner that may render it more generally useful.

The knowlege of the world, and of its inhabitants, though not the most sublime 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 of the earth; promise the best assistance for attaining this knowlege.

The compendium of Geography, now offered to the public, differs in many particulars from other books on that subject. Beside 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 characters of nations depend on a combination of many circumstances, which reciprocally affect each other. There is a nearer connexion between the learning, commerce, 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 topics should pass unnoticed. The omission of any one of them would, in reality, deprive us of a branch of knowlege, 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 reflexion, appear requisite, when we consider the powerful in-

fluence of learning upon the manners, government, and general character, of nations. These objects, 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 travelers, 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 eighteenth 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 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 barbarism and refinement. Without manifest impropriety, we could not but avail ourselves of their labors, by means of which we have been enabled to give a more copious and perfect detail of what is called Political Geography, than has hitherto appeared.

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

We are sensible that a reader cannot examine the present circumstances of nations with much entertainment or instruction, unless he be also informed of their state 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, wo

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 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, 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, the picture of mankind.

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 their falsity, both from their own nature and the concurring testimony of the most enlightened and the best-informed travelers and historians, has been long since detected.

As to the various 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 a 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 reflexion. By comparing our accounts of the European nations, the important system of practical knowledge is inculcated, and a thousand arguments will appear in favor 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, very 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 barbarism, beside 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 one hand, than from any perceptible approaches toward 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 man-

ners and prejudices 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, without doubt, must escape our notice. But if our general plan be good, and the outlines and chief figures sketched with truth and judgment, the candor 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 an imperfect state; and the 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.

DIRECTIONS FOR PLACING THE MAPS.

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N. B. In the 454th page, not only a province is misnamed, but it is improperly amalgamated with another: for *Asturias Leon*, therefore, read *Asturias, Leon*.—We take this opportunity of referring to our enumeration of the royal family of Great-Britain. The duke of York is mentioned (in p. 239) among the *living princes*, because, when that sheet passed through the press, we had not lost his royal highness. We now request the reader to supersede that paragraph, and insert, at the end of the section, the following statement:—

The king's next brother, Frederic duke of York, died on the 5th of January, 1827, in the 64th year of his age, leaving no issue by the princess of Prussia, to whom he was married in 1791.

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of the 1st day of January 1950

Director of Revenue

INTRODUCTION.

PART I. OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SECT. I.

OF THE FIGURE AND MOTION OF THE EARTH, THE DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE UNIVERSE, THE PLA- NETS, 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.

The earth was long considered as an extensive plane, of unknown thickness, beneath which were the abodes 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 is sailing, 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 Magalhaens, or Magellan, whose ship first circumnavigated the globe between the years 1519 and 1522, to that of the repeated voyages of captain Cook, have fully demonstrated that the form of the earth is globular.

The spherical figure of the earth being admitted, its motion became much more probable from the very nature of its form; and, besides, an 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, can ascertain very nearly the distances of the heavenly bodies from the earth and from each other, it appears that, if we should conceive these 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 course 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. When we have once clearly conceived this diurnal motion of the earth, we shall easily be enabled to form an idea of its annual 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, although these appearances are caused by the annual motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the sun, which it completes in a year. Now, as we owe to the former of these motions 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 the 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 equally well acquainted with the motions 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 opposite to all the prejudices of sense and opinion, that it never was widely diffused in the ancient world. The philosophers of antiquity, despairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reason, endeavoured to adapt one to the other, and in some measure to reconcile them. Ptolemy, an Egyptian philosopher, who flourished 138 years after the birth of Christ, supposed that the earth was fixed immoveably in the centre of the universe, and that the seven planets, the moon being considered 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 *cælum empyræum*, 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 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 formed 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 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. 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, which was

still more perplexed 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 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 appeared 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 of 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 employ our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to our Creator, 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. By this law of *Gravity*, or *Attraction*, any body falls to the ground, when disengaged from that which supported it. It has been demonstrated, that this 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 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, by foreign astronomers called Uranus. The last was 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. Though it was not till then known as a planet, there are many reasons to suppose that it had been seen before, but had been considered as a fixed star. From the steadiness of its light, from the augmentation of its diameter by high magnifying powers, and from the change which he had observed in its situation, Dr. Herschel first concluded that 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 at the time and in the circumstances which 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.

It may here be observed, that another planet was discovered on the 1st of January, 1801, by Piazzi of Palermo, who called it *Ferdinandia*, in honor of his Sicilian majesty. It has its orbit between those of Mars and Jupiter. According to the latest observations, its period is our 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 is so small, that glasses of a very high magnifying power will not show it with a distinctly-defined diameter: Dr. Herschel, however, estimated its diameter at 160 English miles.

Another planet has been added to the number previously known, 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 calculated at only 116 miles. Two other planets have been discovered, styled Juno and Vesta; but they are so small, that they may rather be called *asteroids* than stars.

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.

Beside these seven planets, there are eighteen which move round four of these in the same manner as the former do round the sun. Of these our Earth has one, called the Moon; Jupiter has four, which were discovered by Galilæus Simon Marius, a German astronomer; Saturn has seven, of which Cassini discovered four, Huygens one, and Herschel two; and the Georgium Sidus, as we before observed, has six. They are called moons, from their resemblance to our moon; and sometimes *secondary* planets, because they are attendants of the *primary* orbs.

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 toward 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.

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.
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Sun.	890,000					D. H. M.			0' 0"
Mercury	3,245	36,841,468	0	87	23	unkn.	109,699	3,318	8 0 0
Venus	7,743	68,891,486	0	224	17	0 23 22	80,295	unkn.	unkn.
Earth	7,942	95,173,000	1	0	0	0 23 56	68,243	1,043	15 0 0
Moon	2,162	ditto	1	0	0	29 12 44	22,290	94	23 29 0
Mars	4,220	145,014,148	1	321	23	1 0 40	55,287	556	94 2 10
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	93	150	18	unkn.	15,000	unkn.	unkn.

COMETS.] Beside the primary and secondary planets already enumerated, there are other bodies which revolve round the sun. These are called *Comets*, and appear occasionally in every part of the heavens. Descending from the 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 those we see in it every night,) and in a few moments vanishing, no care was taken to observe or record their *phenomena* with precision. 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 to 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 comets are far more numerous than the planets which move in the vicinity of the sun. From the reports of historians, as well as from modern observations, it has been ascertained that more than 450 have been already seen; but those whose orbits are settled with sufficient accuracy to ascertain their identity when they may re-appear, are not more than sixty. 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

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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 semi-diameter from his surface. In that part of its orbit which is nearest to 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.

A comet, which excited extraordinary and even anxious attention, was discerned by M. de Flauguergues, a French astronomer, in March 1811; and it was seen in England in the summer and autumn. On the 11th of July it was in its ascending node, at a distance of 138 millions of miles from the sun. The more nearly it approached the fountain of light and heat; its luminosity, magnitude, and length of tail, increased. It was for some time observed near the *Ursa Major*. On the 22d of October it was at an equal distance from the earth and the sun. From that day to the 19th of November it made such progress as removed it 98 millions of miles and a half farther from the earth. Its diameter could not be accurately measured, from the density of the surrounding atmosphere: but it was supposed to be much larger than the moon. The length of its tail, at one time, was computed at 45 millions of miles.—In the year 1825 a comet appeared, not more remote from the sun, at one time, than twice the distance of the earth. It was scarcely noticed by the inhabitants of our world; and it is not improper to add, that astronomers candidly confess their ignorance of the real nature and use of comets in the system.

[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 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 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, 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 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 to them by the ancients, by whom twenty-one *northern*, and twelve *southern*, were reckoned: but the moderns have increased the number of the northern to thirty-six, and that of the southern to thirty-

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two. Beside these, there are the twelve signs, or constellations of the Zodiac, as it is called from the Greek word ζῳια, 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, yet, when the whole firmament is divided into constellations, not more than a thousand can at any time be seen with the naked eye. Since the invention of telescopes, indeed, the number of the fixed stars may be considered as immense, because, the greater perfection we arrive at in our glasses, the more stars always appear to us. Mr. Flamsteed 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 which 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 nearer to us when the earth is in that part of its orbit nearest to 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 to us, and consequently the largest in appearance, is the dog-star, or Sirius. Modern discoveries make it probable, that each fixed star 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 traveling from the stars to us, than we do in making a long voyage. A sound, which, next to light, is considered as the quickest body we are acquainted with, would not arrive to us thence in 50,000 years; and a cannon-ball, flying at the rate of 480 miles in an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

The stars, being at such immense distances from the sun, cannot receive from him so strong a light as they seem to have, or that brightness which makes 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 unbor- rowed 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 being 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 creative power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by a 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 extreme planet, revolves about the sun in an orbit of 10,830 millions of miles in circumference, and some of our comets make excursions of more than 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, a general analogy connects 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 that, like that luminary, they were created for the most important and beneficial purposes—to bestow light, heat, and vegetation, on a certain number of inhabited planets, retained by gravitation within that sphere which is assigned to the activity of each.

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, multip'ed 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 to them; and these worlds peopled with myriads of intelligent beings, formed for endless progression in virtue 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!

* 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.

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ARMILLARY SPHERE



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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 round it. This method cannot lead the reader into any mistake, since we have previously explained the true system of the universe, from which it appears, that it is the *real* motion of the earth which occasions the *apparent* motions of the heavenly bodies. There is also an advantage in this mode, as 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 immoveable 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*. It was also denominated 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 toward a certain point, and, having arrived there, returned toward 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) called the *Poles* of the zodiac, which, turning with the heavens, by means

E. R. E.

the Plate



Proprietors.

of their axis, describe the *two polar circles*. In the artificial sphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles by two other circles called *Colures*, which serve to mark the points of the solstices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients also observed that, when the sun was in any point of his course, all the people inhabiting directly north and south, as far as the poles, have noon at the same time. This gave occasion to imagine a circle passing through the poles of the world, which they called a *Meridian*, and which is immoveable in the artificial sphere, as well as the *Horizon*, which is another circle representing the bounds between the hemispheres or half-spheres, or 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 articles of the sphere before described are transferred. This section, indeed, chiefly comprehends a transfer of the celestial circles to the representation of the terraqueous globe.

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, and are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles.

CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE.] These are usually 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, or 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*, 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 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 former 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 inmost is that which exhibits the number of degrees of the twelve signs of the zodiac, or thirty to each sign.

Next to this are the names of these signs, together with the days of the month. Beside these, there is a circle representing the thirty-two rhombs, 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, if we reckon 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, cutting the equator obliquely. In the middle is supposed another, called the *Ecliptic*, from which the sun never deviates in his annual course, and in which he advances thirty degrees in every month. The twelve signs of the Zodiac 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 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,—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 the distance of twenty-three degrees thirty minutes from it, measured on the brazen meridian, one toward the north, the other toward the south, these are called tropics, from the Greek word *τροπή*, a turning, because the sun appears, when in them, to turn backward from his former course. 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, *ἄρκτος*; the *southern* the *Ant-arctic*, because opposite to the former. And these are the four minor circles.

ZONES.] After the four less circles 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 lie in one or other of these portions, which are called *Zones*, from the Greek word *ζώνη*, signifying a girdle; being broad spaces, like swaths, girding the earth.

The *tropical zone* is a portion of the earth situated between the tropics. It was so called by the ancients, 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.

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* are enclosed within the polar circles. During the greater part of the year, it is extremely cold in those parts; and every thing is frozen so long as the sun is under the horizon, or only a little above it. However, these zones are not quite uninhabitable.

CLIMATES.] Beside the division of the earth into hemispheres and zones, geographers have also divided it into *climates*, which are narrower zones, each included between parallels of latitude, at such a distance from each other, that the length of the longest day under that nearest to 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 of 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.

Lat. D. M.	Breadth D. M.	Lo.Da. H. M.	Names of Countries and remarkable Places, situated in every Climate North of the Equator.
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 South America.
2 16 25	8 0	13 0	II. Here lie Abyssinia in Africa; Siam, Madras, and Pondicheri, in the East-Indies; Strait of Darien, between N. and S. America; Tohago, Grenada, St. Vincent, and Barbadoes, in the West Indies.
3 23 50	7 25	13 30	III. Contains Mecca in Arabia; Bombay, part of Bengal; Canton in China; Mexico, Bay of Campeche, in North America; Jamaica, Hispaniola, St. Christopher's, Antigua, Martinique, and Guadaloupe.
4 30 20	6 30	14 0	IV. Egypt, and the Canary Islands, in Africa; Dehli, in India; the Gulf of Mexico, and East Indies, in North America; the Havanna, in the West-Indies.
5 36 28	6 8	14 30	V. Gibraltar; part of the Mediterranean Sea; the Barbary Coast; Jerusalem; Ispahan; Nankiu in China; California, New Mexico, West Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America.

Lat.	Breadth		Lo. Da.		Names of Countries and remarkable Places, situated in every Climate North of the Equator.
	D.	M.	D.	H. M.	
6 41	22	4 54	15	0	VI. Lisbon; Madrid; Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece; Asia Minor; part of the Caspian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Pekin, 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 parts of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome; Constantinople, and the Black Sea; the Caspian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York, and Boston.
8 49	1	3 32	16	0	VIII. Paris; Vienna; Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Canada.
9 52	0	2 59	16	30	IX. London, Prague, Dresden, Cracow; the southern provinces of Russia; part of Tartary; the northern part of Newfoundland.
10 54	27	2 27	17	0	X. Dublin, York, Hanover, and Warsaw; Holland; Tartary; Labrador, and New South Wales.
11 56	37	2 10	17	30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moscow.
12 58	29	1 52	18	0	XII. The southern part of Sweden; Tobolsk.
13 59	58	1 29	18	30	XIII. Orkney Isles; Stockholm.
14 61	18	1 20	19	0	XIV. Bergen, Petersburg.
15 62	25	1 7	19	30	XV. Hudson's Strait, North America.
16 63	22	57	20	0	XVI. Siberia, and the southern part of West Greenland.
17 64	6	44	20	30	XVII. Drottheim.
18 64	49	43	21	0	XVIII. Part of Finland.
19 65	21	32	21	30	XIX. Archangel, on the White Sea.
20 65	47	26	22	0	XX. Hecla, in Iceland.
21 66	6	19	22	30	XXI. The northern parts of Russia and Siberia.
22 66	20	14	23	0	XXII. New North Wales, in North America.
23 66	28	8	23	30	XXIII. Davis' Strait.
24 66	31	3	24	0	XXIV. Samoieda.
25 67	21	1	Month.	XXV. The southern part of Lapland.	
26 69	48	2	Months.	XXVI. West Greenland.	
27 73	37	3	Months.	XXVII. Zembla Australis.	
28 78	30	4	Months.	XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.	
29 84	5	5	Months.	XXIX. Spitsbergen, or East Greenland.	
30 90	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 distances and bearings of places, &c., globes are provided with a piant 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 moveable round the axis of the globe.

LATITUDE.] The *latitude* of any place is its distance from the equator toward 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 to be 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 it 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. Formerly the meridian of Ferro (the westernmost of the Canary Islands) was made, in general, the first meridian; 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 of that distance; but formerly the French and other foreign geographers, in conformity with an *ordonnance* of Louis 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 only one half of the length of a degree on the equator. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, may be found 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	21	64	60	42	51	42
1	69	19	22	64	16	43	50	61
2	69	16	23	63	70	44	49	78
3	69	10	24	63	22	45	48	93
4	69	05	25	62	72	46	48	07
5	68	95	26	62	20	47	47	19
6	68	82	27	61	66	48	46	30
7	68	68	28	61	10	49	45	40
8	68	52	29	60	52	50	44	48
9	68	35	30	59	92	51	43	55
10	68	14	31	59	32	52	42	60
11	67	93	32	58	69	53	41	64
12	67	69	33	58	04	54	40	67
13	67	43	34	57	37	55	39	69
14	67	14	35	56	69	56	38	69
15	66	84	36	55	98	57	37	69
16	66	52	37	55	26	58	36	67
17	66	17	38	54	53	59	35	64
18	65	81	39	53	78	60	34	60
19	65	43	40	53	01	61	33	55
20	65	03	41	52	23	62	32	49

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d in the following

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.
63	31	42	72	21	38	81	10	82
64	30	33	73	20	23	82	09	63
65	29	24	74	19	07	83	08	43
66	28	15	75	17	91	84	07	23
67	27	04	76	16	74	85	06	03
68	25	92	77	15	57	86	04	83
69	24	80	78	14	39	87	03	62
70	23	67	79	13	20	88	02	41
71	22	53	80	12	02	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 placed 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 (a) PROB. 1. of the given place, and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the same; and, when you turn the globe round, all 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.

d in a Degree
the Equator.

es	Miles	100th Parts of a Mile
		42
		61
		78
		93
		07
		19
		30
		40
		48
		55
		60
		64
		67
		69
		69
		69
		67
		67
		64
		60
		55
		49

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.

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 opposite 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 index of the horary circle at the hour of the day, in the given place, turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII; then 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 western side of the horizon be touched by the given place of the ecliptic, look upon the horary circle; and, where the index points, reckon the number of hours to the upper figure of XII; for that is the 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.*

Bring the place in which you are to the brazen meridian, the pole being raised 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 those points of the ecliptic; for those are the days required.

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 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 toward 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, on the given day. For the solution of the latter part of the problem, set off the same distance from the south pole upon the brazen meridian toward the equator, as was in the former case set off from the north: if you then mark as before, and turn 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 for what Number of Days the Sun constantly shines upon the said Place, and on what Day 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, elevate the globe accordingly; count the same number of degrees upon the meridian from each side of 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. The northern arch of the circle, or that comprehended between the degrees marked, being reduced to time, will give the number of days when the sun constantly shines above the horizon of the given place; and the opposite arch of the said circle will exhibit the number of days in which he is totally absent, and also will point out which days those are. And in the interval he 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 (a), bring (a) **PROB. 6.** the same to the brazen meridian, on which make a small 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 of 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 horary 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. In the same manner we may find those places which 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 being found, and brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the same; then (a) **PROB. 10.** 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

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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 exactly as many degrees above them as they themselves are above the horizon. That this height may be known, fix 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, observe 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 which 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 almanac; 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 (a) Prob. 2. of the given place; and the sun's place in the ecliptic at the time being 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 are situated 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 toward the north and 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 of 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 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, except when the sun enters 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 may 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 in a year to every place between the tropics; to those under the tropics, once in a year; but never any where 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 only 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 situated exactly under the polar circles, the sun, when it 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, it is for the same length of time without rising, because no part of that tropic is above their horizon. But, at all other times of the year, it 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, its 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 consequently the shortest night) is when the sun is in the northern tropic, and the shortest day is when that luminary is in the southern tropic, because no circle of the sun's daily motion

is so much above the horizon, or so little below it, as the northern tropic, and none so little above it, or so much below it, as the southern. In the southern hemisphere, a contrary effect is observable.

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 to, 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 should 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 more forward 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 these; a continent, island, peninsula, isthmus, promontory; cape, coast, mountain, &c. The land is divided into two great continents (beside the islands,) viz., the *eastern* and *western* continents. 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, surrounded by water, as Great Britain. A *peninsula* is a tract of land, encompassed 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*. 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. Mountains, valleys, woods, deserts, plains, &c., require no description.

The parts of the water are oceans, seas, lakes, straits, gulfs, bays or creeks, rivers, &c. The waters are divided into three extensive oceans (beside smaller 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, surrounded by land; as the lake of Geneva, and the lakes in Canada. A *strait* is a narrow part of the sea, confined between 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*, as 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; when it does 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 smaller divisions of water, like those of land, are to be met with in almost every country. But, in order to strengthen the remembrance of the great parts of the land and water which 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 surrounded by 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 long the subject of great disputes among philosophers. Sir Isaac Newton showed, from mathematical principles, that the earth must be an *oblate* spheroid, or that it was flatted at the poles and juttet out toward 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. Cassini asserted precisely the reverse, when he maintained that its diameter was lengthened toward 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 toward the poles than near 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

s, gulfs, bays or extensive oceans viz., the *Atlantic*, Western Ocean miles wide. The ver. The Indian 000 miles wide. entire separation of smaller collection l by the land; as rge collection of and the lakes in d between shores, the strait of Gid a *sound*, as the uning up into the hich it communie, it is called an far into the land, y small, a *creek*, Rivers, canals, ivisions of water, ountry. But, in of the land and rve that there is description of a ased with water and is like a gulf ay or creek of the eembles a strait,

spindle, and whirling it round; for we shall find that it will project toward the middle, and flatten toward the poles. From his theory, he 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 mesuration 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; premising, that the number of inhabitants, attributed to the whole known world, may thus be divided; 150 millions for Europe, three times that amount for Asia, and 50 millions respectively for Africa and America.

	Square Miles.	Islands.	Square Miles.	Islands.	Square Miles.
The Globe	148,510,627	Cuba	38,400	St. Michael	920
Seas and unknown Parts	117,843,821	Java	36,250	Sky	900
The Habitable World	30,666,806	Hispaniola	36,000	Lewis	880
Europe	2,749,349	Newfoundlund	35,500	Funen	762
Asia	10,257,487	Ceylon	27,730	Yvica	625
Africa	8,576,208	Ireland	27,457	Mhorea	520
America	9,153,762	Formosa	17,000	Rhodes	480
Persian Empire under Darius	1,650,300	Anian	11,900	Cephalonia	420
Rom. Em. at its utmost height	1,610,000	Gilolo	10,400	Ambouya	400
Russian	4,864,000	Sicily	9,400	Pomona, Ork.	324
Chinese	1,298,000	Timor	7,600	Scio	306
Turkish	652,960	Sardinia	6,600	Martinique	260
Present Persian	800,000	Cyprus	6,300	Lemnos	220
British, exclusive of Settlements in Africa and Gibraltar	317,196	Jamaica	6,000	Corfu	194
United States	923,000	Flores	6,000	Providence	168
		Ceram	5,400	Man	160
		Breton	4,000	Bornholm	160
		Socotra	3,600	Wight	150
		Caodia	3,220	Malta	150
Borneo	228,000	Porto Rico	3,200	Barbadoes	140
Madagascar	168,000	Corsica	2,520	Zante	120
Sumatra	129,000	Zeelard	1,935	Antigua	100
Japan	118,000	Majorca	1,400	St. Christopher's	80
Great Britain	77,243	St. Jago	1,400	St. Helena	80
Celebes	68,400	Negropont	1,300	Guernsey	50
Manilla	58,500	Teneriffe	1,272	Jersey	43
Iceland	43,260	Gotland	1,000	Bermuda	40
Terra del Fuego	42,073	Madeira	950	Rhode	36
Mindanao	39,200				

To these islands may be added the following, which have lately been discovered or more fully explored. Their exact dimensions are not ascertained,

New Holland,	Friendly Islands,
New Guinea,	Sandwich Islands,
New Zealand,	Navigators' Islands,
New Caledonia,	Palaos, or Pelew Islands,
New Hebrides,	Marquesas,
Otaheite and the Society Islands,	Foster, or Davis' Island.

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merical or globular sphere. Its true philosophers. Sir at the earth must and jutted out to centre of the earth, as a line drawn east and west points. ned that its diside this question, maticians to Lap-polar circle, and near the equator. Newton beyond the poles than near be in some mea of soft clay on a

Before we conclude this introductory part of our work, it will be proper to give a brief explanation of the nature and cause of winds and tides.

WINDS.] The earth on which we live is surrounded by a fine invisible fluid, which extends several miles above its surface, and is called *air*. It is found by experiments, that a small quantity of air is capable of being expanded, so as to fill a very large space, or of being compressed into a much smaller compass than it occupied before. The general cause of the expansion of air is heat; that of its compression, cold. Hence, if any part of the air or atmosphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compressed. But, when air is put in motion, we call it *wind* in general; and a breeze, gale, or storm, according to the quickness or velocity of that motion. Winds, therefore which are commonly considered as things extremely variable and uncertain, depend on a general cause, and act with more or less uniformity in proportion as the action of this cause is more or less constant. It is found, by observations made at sea, that, from thirty degrees of northern 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 it, by which means a stream or tide of air always accompanies it in its course, and occasions a perpetual east-wind within these limits. This general cause, however, is modified by a number of particulars, the explanation 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 for six months in one direction, and during 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 the shore. Near the coast of Guinea, the wind blows nearly always from the west, south-west, or south. On the coast of Peru, 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 *Tide* is meant that regular motion of the sea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. 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 attract each other, in proportion to their masses and distance. By the action of this power, those parts of the sea which are immedi-

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ately below the moon must be drawn toward 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 that planet than the other parts which are nearer to it, gravitate less toward 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 toward those places, to maintain the equilibrium; and, to supply the place of these, others will move the same way, and so on to the places ninety degrees distant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be the lowest. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth above explained, we shall be sensible of the reason why the tides ebb and flow twice in a lunar day, or about twenty-four hours and fifty minutes.

The tides are higher than the ordinary rate twice every month, that is, about the times of new and full moon, and are called *Spring Tides*; for, at these times, the actions of the sun and moon are united, and draw in the same straight line; and consequently the sea must be more elevated. At the conjunction, or when the sun and moon are on the same side of the earth, they conspire to raise the waters in the zenith, and consequently in the nadir; and at the opposition, or when the earth is between the sun and moon, while one occasions high water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the same. The tides are less than ordinary, twice every month, about the first and last quarters of the moon, and are called *Neap Tides*; for, in those quarters, the sun raises the waters where the moon depresses them, and depresses where the moon raises them; so that the tides are only occasioned by the difference by which the action of the moon, which is nearest to us, prevails over that of the sun. These effects would be uniformly produced, were the whole surface of the earth covered with water; but, since there are a multitude of islands and continents which interrupt the natural course of the water, various appearances are to be met with in different places, which cannot be explained without considering the situation of the shores, straits, and other objects that have a share in causing them.

CURRENTS.] There are frequently streams or currents in the ocean, which set ships a great way beyond their intended course. Between Florida and the Bahama islands, a current always runs from south to north. A current runs constantly from the Atlantic, through the Strait of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean. A current sets out of the Baltic Sea, through the Sound or strait between Sweden and Denmark, into the British channel, so that there are no tides in the Baltic. About small islands and head-lands in the middle of the ocean, the tides rise very little; but in some bays, and about the mouths of rivers, they rise from 12 to 50 feet.

CONSTRUCTION AND USE OF MAPS.

MAPS.] A map is a representation of the earth, or a part of it. A map of the world is a delineation in perspective of the globe, as it

would appear to an eye placed in a particular point. The circles bounding such a map represent the brass meridian, and the curve lines, running across at every ten degrees, show the latitude north or south of the equator. The top and bottom are the north and south poles; and the curve lines uniting them are other meridians passing through every tenth degree of the equator, and showing the longitude east or west from the first meridian. The straight line intersecting these meridians, and passing through the centre, is the equator, or equinoctial; at proper distances from which, on each side, are curve lines representing the tropics and polar circles.

Maps and charts, especially the latter, are sometimes drawn on what is called *Mercator's Projection*, so called from the inventor, Gerard Mercator, an eminent geographer in Flanders, who, about the middle of the sixteenth century, published a map of the world on this construction. In these maps the meridians and parallels are straight, and the former equidistant from each other. The degrees of longitude in every parallel are the same, while the degrees of latitude are all unequal, being lengthened toward the poles. Charts drawn on this plan are particularly of use to navigators, because the rhombs which point out the bearings of places, and consequently the courses to be steered to arrive at them, are all straight lines. We have annexed a chart of the world on this projection.

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 *fleur-de-lys* is usually placed on some part of the map, pointing toward 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 extreme meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of longitude and latitude, 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 by black lines, and are wider near the mouth than toward the head or spring. Mountains are sketched on maps as on a picture. Forests and woods are represented by a kind of ahrub; 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.

MARINER'S COMPASS.

This instrument, of such essential use in navigation, was the invention of Flavio Gioia, of Amalfi in the kingdom of Naples, about the year 1302; but no particular account has been transmitted of the manner and circumstances of this important discovery. Though it was then applied to navigation, it does not appear that during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries there was any apprehension of its pointing other ways than due north and south. Its variation is said to have been first perceived by Columbus, in the voyage in which he dis-

covered the West Indies. It was afterward found not only to differ in different places, but to vary at different times in the same place. The variation at London, in the year 1576, was $11^{\circ} 16'$ east; from which time it diminished till, in 1657, it became 0.0; after which it turned westerly, and has continued increasing, yet very slowly, to the present time.

If the magnetic needle be so suspended that it can freely move vertically, the north end will, in this part of the world, dip, or incline toward the horizon. This is called the *dipping needle*. As we approach the southern parts of the earth, the dip will diminish, and at length the needle will become horizontal; and, in proceeding more southerly, the south end will dip.

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.

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.

The English marine league is 3 English miles.

PART II.

OF THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, AND COMMERCE.

HAVING, in the course of this work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and even sometimes in speaking of those countries carried our researches into early times, we have thought it necessary, in order to prepare the reader for entering upon the particular history of each country, to present him with a general view of the history of mankind, from the first ages of the world, to the reformation of religion during the 16th century. An account of the most interesting and momentous 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, government, 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 chronologists, in the year before Christ 4004, and in the 710th year of what is called the Julian period, which has been adopted by some historians, but is of little real service. The sacred records have fully determined the question, that the world was not eternal, and have also adjusted the time of its creation.

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 had become extremely vicious, both in 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 world, and produced a very considerable change in the soil and atmosphere of this globe, rendering them less friendly to the frame and nature of the human body. From this æra we may date the abridgement of the life of man, and the rise and continuance of a formidable train of diseases. A curious part of history follows that of the deluge—the re-peopling of the world, and the rising of a new generation from the ruins of the former. Of the three sons of Noah, the first founders of nations, the memory was long preserved among their several descendants. Japheth continued famous among the western nations, under the name of Iapetus; 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 for 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 dexterity universally excited, he 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, will not excite the wonder of the present age. We have seen, in 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 ancient history begins to expand itself.

Mankind had not long been united into societies before they began to oppress and destroy each other. Chedorlaomer, king of the Elamites, or Persians, had 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, attacked 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 gave 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 colors. 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 labored 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; many granaries 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 Japheth and grandson of Noah, was the stock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks descended. Javan established himself in the islands on the western coast of Asia Minor, from which 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 this empire was soon dissolved; and the Greeks, who seem to have been at that time as rude and barbarous as any people in the world, relapsed into their lawless and savage manner of life. Several colonies, however, soon after passed over from Asia into Greece, and, by remaining in that country, produced a more considerable alteration in the manners of its inhabitants. The most ancient of these were B. C. the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former 1850. settled in Argos, and the latter in Attica. We know very little of Ogyges or his successors. Those of Inachus endeavoured to unite the

dispersed and wandering Greeks; and their exertions for this purpose were not altogether unsuccessful.

But the history of the race of Israel is the only one with which we are much acquainted during these 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 B. C. 1689 years before Christ, and in the year of the world 2315. 1689. This is a remarkable æra with respect to the nations of heathen antiquity, and concludes that period 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 regard 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 predicament. 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 civilized kingdoms of modern Europe and the savages 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, who would likewise hand them down to their posterity. Those nations, therefore, which settled nearest to the original seat of mankind, and had the best opportunities to avail themselves of the knowledge which their great ancestor possessed, 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 their discovery in Greece, are often mentioned in the sacred writings. It is scarcely to be supposed that the ancient cities both in Asia and Egypt could have been built, unless the culture of the ground had been practised at that time. Nations which 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, discover 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 considerable, before the metals begin 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. 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 before the time of Jacob. The *resilah*, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, stamped with the figure of a lamb, and of

a precise and stated value. The history of Joseph shows that commerce was then regularly carried on. The Ishmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were traveling 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 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 necessaries 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.

Those descendants 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 were the same nation afterward known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful soil, they endeavoured 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. In 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, is necessary both to agriculture and navigation; and the art of working metals, to commerce. 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 seven days, or a week: this undoubtedly arose from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for those nations which led a pastoral life, or lived under a serene sky, to observe that the various appearances of the moon were completed nearly in four weeks: hence arose the division of a month. Those, also, who lived by agriculture, would remark that twelve months brought back the same temperature of the air, or the same seasons: hence originated what is called the *lunar year*,—a division of time which, together with the observation of the fixed stars, naturally prepared the way for the discovery of the *solar year*. 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 offered 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, traversing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a 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 immersed in an abyss of misery and wretchedness.

We might naturally expect, that from the death of Jacob, and as we advance 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 for many ages. After the reign of Ninyas, who succeeded Semiramis and Ninus on the Assyrian throne, we find an astonishing blank in the history of that empire for 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. We find, however, that Sesostris, a prince of wonderful abilities, greatly improved, by his assiduity and attention, the civil and military establishments of the Egyptians. In the time of that prince and his immediate successors, Egypt was, in all probability, the most powerful kingdom upon earth, and is supposed to have contained 27 millions of inhabitants. But ancient history often excites, without gratifying, our curiosity; for, during a series of reigns, we have little knowledge of even the names of the princes. Egypt occasionally poured forth her colonies into distant lands. 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. Even the laws of marriage 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. Cranaüs, 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 peopled by colonies from Egypt and the East, began to assume an appearance of form and regularity. Amphictyon conceived the idea of uniting in one confederacy the independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby delivering them from those intestine divisions which would render them a prey to each other, or to the first enemy who might invade the country. This plan he communicated to the different kings or leaders, and by his eloquence and address engaged twelve cities to unite for their common preservation. Two deputies from each of those cities assembled twice in a year at Thermopylae, 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 determined. Amphictyon also, sensible that those political connexions are the most permanent which are strengthened by religion, committed to the council the care of the temple at Delphi. 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. Considered under all the circumstances of the age in which it was instituted, the Amphictyonic council is perhaps the most remarkable political establishment that ever took place among mankind.

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mutual inroads and hostilities, soon began to act with concert, and to undertake distant expeditions for the general interest of the confederacy.

Their first combined enterprise was the expedition of the Argonauts, whose object was to open the commerce of the Euxine Sea, and to establish colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The Argo is the only ship 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 it arrived on the Colchian coast, 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 globe by our modern discoverers. During the interval between this voyage and the war against Troy, which was undertaken to cover 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 one hundred men. These vessels, however, were only 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 an unfavorable 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, in political situation, among the states of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather by a chieftain, who was a leader in time of war, a judge in time of peace, and who presided over religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being absolute. In each society there were a number of other leaders, whose influence, over particular clans or tribes, was not less considerable than that of the king over his immediate followers. These captains were often at war with each other, and sometimes with their sovereign; and each 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 valor 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, 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. He did not, however, trust solely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid the efficacy of devotion and of spiritual power. 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, being divested of all influence and consideration, became humble and submissive; and Attica remained under the peaceable government of a monarch.

This is a rude sketch of the origin of the first monarchy of which we have a distinct account, and may, without much variation, be applied to the other states of Greece. This country, however, was not destined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence arose, which in a short time proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theseus had divided the Athenians into three distinct classes,—the nobles, the 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 policy 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. On the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, in the year before Christ 1070, the Athenians, 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 royalty itself.

The government of Thebes, another of the Greek states, about the same time, assumed the republican form; and other cities also erected themselves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival states, which, by means of the superiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deserve our particular attention. The Athenians, on the death of Codrus, created 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 by shortening its duration. The first period assigned for the continuance of the archonship in the same person, was three years. Afterward, 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 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 members of the community, therefore, preferring any system of government to 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 multitude. Draco undertook the office about the year 628, but executed it with so much rigor, 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, about the year 594. The wisdom, virtue, and amiable manners of Solon,

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recommended him to the most important of all offices, the giving of laws to a free people. The first step of his legislation was to abolish all the laws of Draco, except 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 beautiful in theory, but not reducible to practice. He divided the citizens therefore into four classes, according to the wealth which they possessed, and the poorest class he rendered altogether incapable of any public office. 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, who prepared all important bills that came before the assembly of the people; the second, though a mere 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.

That country, of which Sparta afterward 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 con-
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junct in the royalty; and their posterity, in a direct line, con-
tinued to rule jointly for almost nine centuries. The Spartan
government did not take that singular form which rendered it so re-
markable before the time of Lycurgus. The plan of policy
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devised by that extraordinary man comprehended a senate and
an assembly of the people, and, in general, all those esta-
blishments which are deemed most requisite for the security of political
independence. It differed from all other governments, in having two
kings whose office was hereditary, though their power was sufficiently
circumscribed by proper restraints. But the great characteristic of the
Spartan constitution was 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, were abso-
lutely proscribed. The citizens were forbidden to use money; they
lived at public tables on the coarsest fare; the younger were taught to
pay the utmost reverence to the senior citizens; and all ranks capable of
bearing arms were daily accustomed to the most laborious 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 Spar-
tan 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 portions of the globe, we
must now cast our eyes on Africa and Asia, and observe the events
which happened in those great empires of which we have so long lost
sight. For some centuries before the conquest of Egypt by Cambyaes the
Persian, the people were 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 that we meet with in history, of a kingdom which fell 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 his eunuchs, lost the regard and esteem of 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, 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

B. C. the Great took Babylon, and reduced a considerable part of Asia under the Persian yoke. The manners of this people, brave, 538.

hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus in all its various departments, are elegantly described by Xenophon. The æra of Cyrus is in one respect extremely remarkable (beside that in it the Jews were delivered from their captivity), because with it the history of the great nations of antiquity, which have 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 the magnificent seems to have been the prevailing character of those nations; and they principally displayed it in their works of architecture. There are no remains, however, which confirm the testimony of ancient writers with regard to the great works that adorned Babylon and Nineveh. Three pyramids, stupendous fabrics, are still seen in Egypt, which are supposed to have been the burying-places of the ancient Egyptian kings. 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; and the pyramids were erected with the same view.

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 any species of rational and sound philosophy; as a proof of which it may be sufficient to observe, that 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 labor afforded all the necessaries, and even luxuries of life. They had long been accustomed to a civilised and polished life in great cities. These circumstances had tainted their manners with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an easy prey to the Persians, a nation emerging from barbarism, and consequently 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 to the Greeks an opportunity of exercising those virtues which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of the institutions of Lycurgus: Athens had recently recovered from the tyranny of the Pisistratidæ, a family which had trampled on the laws of Solon, and usurped the supreme power. Such was the situation of those states, when Darius, at the instigation of an expelled mal-content, 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, on the plains of Marathon, B. C. with ten thousand Athenians, overcame the Persian army of a hundred and ten thousand men. His countrymen Themistocles and Aristides, the first celebrated for his abilities, the second for his virtue, gained the next honors 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 the historical works of the ancients.

Xerxes, the son of Darius, came in person into Greece, with an immense army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted, the attendants of the camp being included, to two millions and one hundred thousand men. This account has been justly considered, by some ingenious modern writers, as incredible. Whatever might be the number of his army, he was 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. Not the battles in which they suffered the loss of so many brave men, but those in which they acquired the spoils of Persia,—not their endurance of so many hardships in the course of the war, but their connexions with the Persians after the conclusion of it,—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 dissensions were increased by Persian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them desirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponnesian war, in which the Athenians and 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, rendered himself the absolute

B. C. 338. master of Greece, by the battle of Chæronea. This conquest is one of the first we meet with in history, which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his schemes 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 to 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. After his death, the Athenians and Thebans made a feeble effort for expiring liberty; but they were obliged to yield to the vigour of Alexander, the son of Philip, who soon after undertook an expedition against the Persians, 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 over-running and subduing, not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but various parts of India, whose very names had never before reached an European ear, constitutes a singular part of the history of the world. Soon after

B. C. 323. this rapid career of victory and success, Alexander died at Babylon. His chief officers, after sacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided among them his dominions.

During the period which elapsed between the reigns of Cyrus and Alexander, the arts were cultivated with peculiar success. 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. Phidias, the Athenian, who died in the year B. C. 432, acquired the highest fame as a sculptor. 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 excellence in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can scarcely form an idea. After Hesiod and Homer, who flourished about 900 years before the Christian era, 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 fine arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every species of philosophy flourished among them. Not to mention the divine Socrates, the virtues of whose life, and the excellence of whose philosophy, justly entitled him to high respect and veneration,—his three disciples, Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon, may, for strength of reasoning, justness of sentiment, and propriety of expression, be considered as equal to 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 ardor 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 may be found in 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 the leader of a few lawless and wandering banditti, B. C. is an object of extreme insignificance. But, when we consider him as the founder of an empire of wonderful extent, 753. whose progress and decline have occasioned two of the 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 their display was afforded by the political state of Italy, divided into a number of small but independent districts. He 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 afterward became masters of a very considerable portion of the world. Instead of destroying the nations he had subjected, he united them to the Roman state. Thus 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. Though principally attached to war, he 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 discontented senators.

The successors of Romulus were all very extraordinary personages. Numa 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, Tarqui-

nus Priscus, and Servius Tullius, labored, each during his reign, for the greatness of Rome. But Tarquin the Proud, 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, who, by dishonoring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occasioned

B. C. the expulsion of the Tarquin family, and with it the dissolution
509. 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 lieu of the kings, therefore, they appointed two annual magistrates, called consuls, who, without exciting the same jealousy, succeeded to all the powers of their former sovereigns.

When the Romans had gradually subdued all opposition in Italy, they turned their eyes abroad, and met with powerful rivals 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, in the year 869; and, according to the practice of their mother-country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatness. Carthage, in these views, had proved wonderfully successful. She now commanded both sides of the Mediterranean. Beside 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 the Islands of Corsica and Sardinia. Sicily found great difficulty in defending itself; and the Romans were too nearly threatened, not to take up arms. Hence rose three 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 had become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigor of her political constitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars: the Roman state was composed of soldiers. The first war with Carthage lasted twenty-three years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the sea. A Car-

B. C. thaginian vessel was wrecked on their coast; they used it for a
260. 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, (unless we question the authenticity of the story) may give us an idea of the spirit which then animated this people. Being made 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 characters. Of all the enemies the Romans ever had to contend with, Hannibal, the Carthaginian, was the most inflexible and dangerous. Being appointed general at twenty-five years of age, he crossed the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and unexpectedly rushed down upon Italy.

B. C. The loss of four battles threatened the fall of Rome. Sicily sided
with the conqueror; and almost all Italy abandoned the Romans.
218.

In this extremity, Rome owed its preservation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, despising popular clamor and the military ardor of his countrymen, declined coming to an engagement. The strength of Rome had time to recover. Marcellus raised the siege of Nola; took

Syracuse, and revived the drooping spirits of his troops. The young Scipio, at the age of four and twenty years, rushed into Spain, where both his father and uncle had lost their lives, attacked New Carthage, and reduced it at the first assault. Upon his arrival in Africa, kings submitted to him; Carthage trembled in her turn, and saw her armies defeated. Hannibal was in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage was rendered tributary, and engaged never to enter on a war, but with the consent of the Roman people. B. C. 201.

At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two portions: in one part fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated by those quarrels which had lasted since the death of Alexander the Great, and in which the scenes of action were 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 was an association of free cities, which had assemblies and magistrates in common. Philip, who then reigned in Macedon, had rendered himself odious to the Greeks by some unpopular and tyrannical measures; the Ætolians 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 were considered as their dependents. The Ætolians, 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: but Antiochus did not follow his advice so much as that of the Ætolians; 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 force, and, being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Asia. The Romans pursued him, and, having vanquished him by sea and land, compelled him to submit to a disgraceful treaty. B. C. 190.

In these conquests the Romans still allowed the ancient inhabitants to possess their territories. 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, which 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 other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. But Marius severely chastised the barbarians, who retired to their wilds and deserts, less formidable than the Roman legions. Yet, while

B. C. 102. Rome conquered the world, there subsisted an acrimonious warfare within her walls. This species of hostility had continued from the first period of the government. Rome, after the expulsion of her kings, enjoyed merely a partial liberty. The descendants of the senators, who were styled 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 favor 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 their opponents; 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, 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 arose 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: persons of the higher class were too wealthy and effeminate to submit to the rigors 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 banners they fought, and conquered, and plundered; and for him they were ready to die. He might command them to attack 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 the maintenance of 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 followers of Marius.

Julius Cæsar at length appeared. By subduing the Gauls, he gained for his country the most useful conquest it ever made. Pompey, his only rival, was overcome on the plains of Pharsalia. Cæsar was 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 was acknowledged master at Rome, and through the whole empire. Brutus and Cassius attempted to give Rome her li-

B. C. 44. berty by stabbing him in the senate-house: but, though they thus delivered the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic did not obtain its freedom. It fell under the dominion of Mark Antony; Octavius, nephew to Julius, wrested it from him by the

sea-fight at Actium, and no Brutus or Cassius remained to put an end to his life. Those friends of liberty had killed themselves in despair; and the young conqueror, with the name of Augustus and title of emperor, became the absolute master of the empire. During these civil commotions, the Romans still preserved the glory of their arms among distant nations; and, while it was unknown who should be master of Rome, they were, without dispute, the masters of the world. Their military discipline and valor abolished all the remains of the Carthaginian, Persian, Greek, Assyrian and Macedonian glory; they were now only a name. No sooner, therefore, was Octavius established on the throne, than ambassadors from all the regions of the known world crowded to make their submissions. Victorious by sea and land, he shut the temple of Janus. The whole earth lived in peace under his power; and Jesus Christ came into the world, four years before the common era.

During the first ages of the republic, the Romans neglected and despised 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, having no enemy to dread from abroad, they 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 unrivaled 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 honor, while they disgrace his country and human nature, whose corruption and vices he paints in the most striking colors. 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 humor, that distinguishes the writings of the comic poets of Greece, and those of our immortal Shakspeare.

Returning to our history, we meet 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 courts of its emperors exhibited the most odious scenes of that caprice, cruelty, and corruption, which universally pre-

vail 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 difficult task still remained for the emperors;—to subdue the barbarous nations of Europe—the people of Germany, of Gaul, and of Britain. 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. From the obstinate resistance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties which 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 a feeble remnant submitted to the Roman power. This situation of affairs was extremely unfavorable 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 miserable consolations for the loss of liberty, for being deprived of the use of arms, overawed by mercenary soldiers, and pillaged by rapacious governors.

The Roman empire, 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 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 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. Great bodies of armed men (says an elegant historian), 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. If a person should be desired to fix upon the period in the history of the world, during which the condition of the human race was the most calamitous, 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, are at a loss for expressions to describe its horrors. *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, and who had embraced Christianity, transferred the seat of the empire from Rome to Constantinople. The western and eastern provinces were in consequence separated from each other, and governed by different sovereigns. The removal of 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 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. So efficacious was the ancient military discipline of the Romans, 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 favorite dish. The tyranny and the universal deprivation 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.

Toward the close of the sixth century, the Saxons were masters of the southern and more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks possessed Gaul; the Goths, Spain; the Goths and Lombards, 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 every where introduced.

From this period, till the 15th century, Europe exhibited a melancholy picture of Gothic barbarity. Literature, science, taste, were words scarcely in use during those 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, sank 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 to 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.

A new division of property gradually introduced a new species of government, distinguished by the name of the *Feudal System*. The king or general, who led the barbarians to conquest, divided 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, who also distributed portions of land 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 to a state of actual servitude, and deprived them of the natural and inalienable rights of humanity; for they were slaves fixed to the soil which they cultivated, and were

transferred with it 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 array. The kindred and dependents, both of the aggressor and the defender, were involved in the quarrel; they had not even the liberty of remaining neuter.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments 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 law 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 of 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, was for many ages the principal emporium; and, when the crusades, which were begun by the Christian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Saracens from Jerusalem, had 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. Though conquest was the object of these expeditions, 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 thence drew 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 kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe.

While trade was cultivated in the south of Europe with such industry and success, the commercial spirit was awakened in the north, toward 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 Lubeck 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 Baltic to 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 an extent and 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 the best-cultivated countries in Europe.

Admiring the flourishing state of those provinces, Edward III. of England endeavoured to excite a spirit of industry among his 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 the enactment of judicious 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 toward 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 embassies were managed chiefly by monks, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties and danger, penetrated to the remote courts of those infidels. The first regular traveler of the monkish kind, who committed his discoveries to writing, was Giovanni Carpini, who, with some of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from pope Innocent to the great khan of Tartary, in favor of the Christian subjects in the extensive dominions of that potentate. Soon after this, a spirit of traveling into Tartary and India became general: and it would not perhaps be difficult to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, served in the armies of Timour, 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 Timour, who, jealous of the rising power of the Turks, had checked their progress, the Christian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vast riches of India, inspired their countrymen with the spirit of adventure and discovery, and were the first who suggested the practicability of a passage thither by sea. The Portuguese had long been 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.

While the Portuguese were intent upon a passage to India by the

east, Colon or Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of sailing thither by the west. After applying in vain to the kings of France, England, and Portugal, he at length obtained the command of three ships from the Spanish court, and set sail in 1492, upon one of the most adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man. In this voyage he had many 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 America 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 country of which he was in quest, and that he had accidentally discovered a new world.

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 era 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 remained with little variation.

EUROPE.

EUROPE, though the least extensive quarter of the globe (for it contains only 2,749,349 square miles), is, in many respects, that which most deserves our attention. Here the human mind has made the greatest progress toward improvement; and here the arts and sciences have been carried to the greatest perfection. If we except the earliest ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the chief varieties of character, government, and manners; and from its history we derive the greatest number of facts and memorials, 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,—the happy temperature of its climate and 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, may also be considered as exceedingly 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 Asia. The seas and rivers facilitate the intercourse of nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favorable 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 it was in that country

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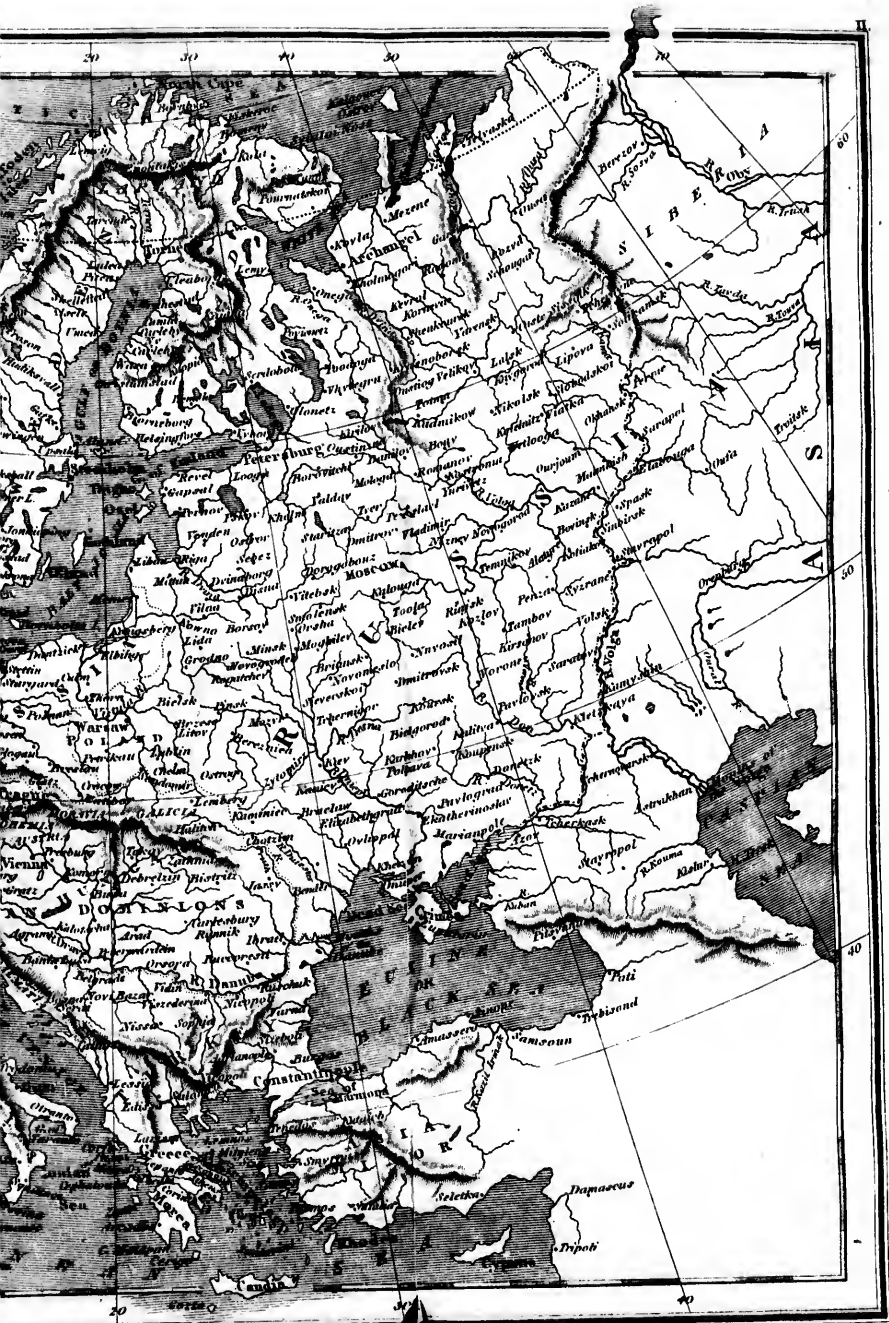
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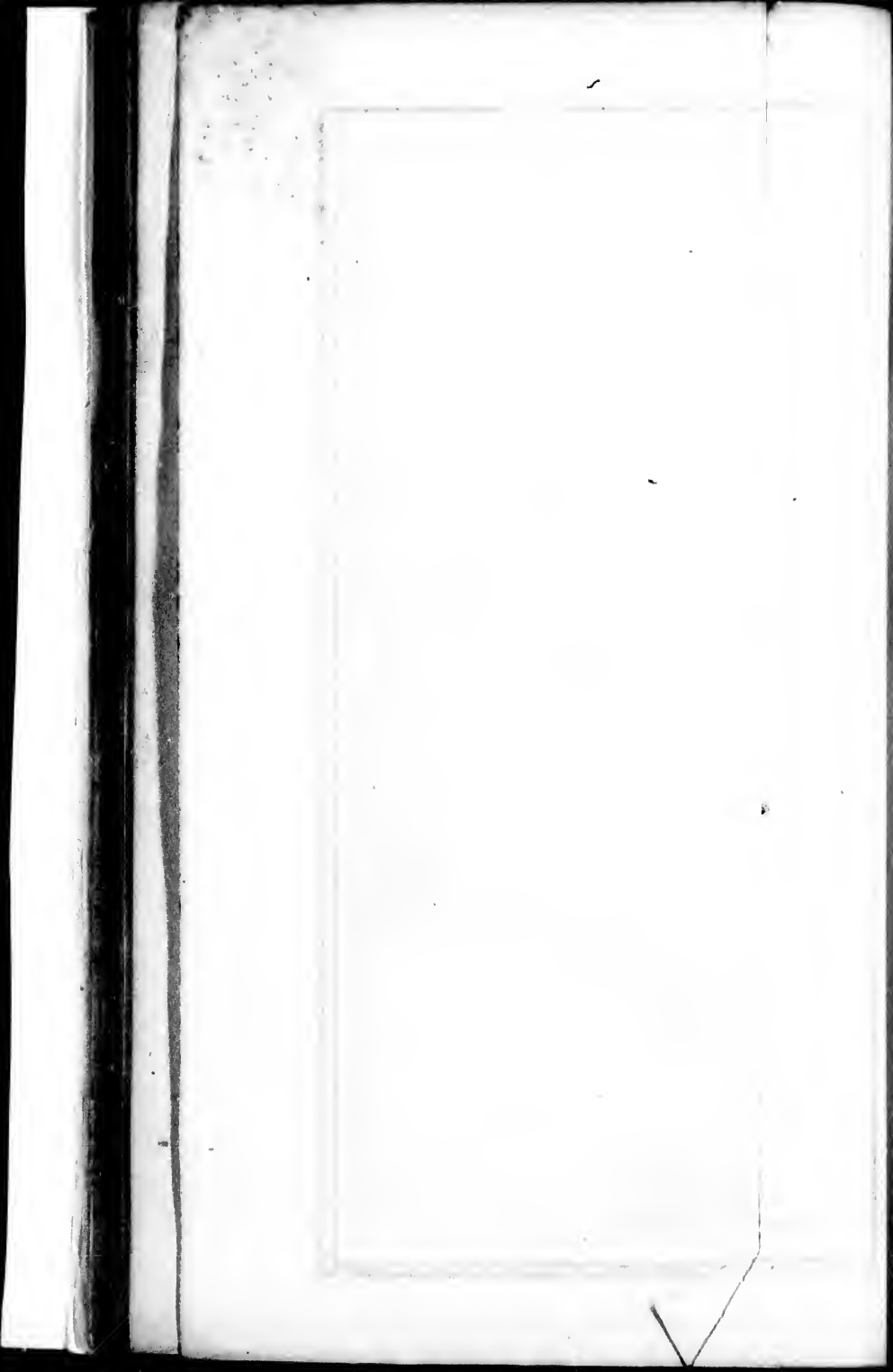
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that the human mind began to know and to avail itself of its strength, and that many of the arts, subservient to utility or pleasure, were invented, or at least greatly improved.

The Christian religion is established in 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. These may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1st, the Greek church; 2d, Popery; and 3d, Protestantism; which last is divided into Lutheranism and Calvinism.

The languages of Europe are derived from the five following; the Gothic, Celtic, Sclavonic, Greek, and Latin.

GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

EUROPE is situated between the 10th degree of western and 65th degree of eastern longitude from London, and between the 36th and 72d degrees of northern 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 Metapan in the Morea, the most southern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and states.

Kingdoms and States.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	Distance and bearing from London.	Difference of Time fr. London.	Religions.
British Em. } England Scotland Ireland	380	300	London . .			Calvin., Luth. &c. Calvinists, &c. Calvio., & Cath.
	270	160	Edinburgh .	400 N. . .	0 12 aft.	
	285	160	Dublin . . .	270 N. W.	0 26 aft.	
Denmark . .	250	120	Copenhagen	500 N. E.	0 50 bef.	Lutherans.
Sweden . . .	950	400	Stockholm .	750 N. E.	0 10 bef.	Lutherans.
Norway . . .	1000	150	Christiania .	510 N. . .	0 24 bef.	Lutherans.
Russia	1600	1000	Petersburg .	1140 N. E.	2 4 bef.	Greek Church.
K. of Pr. Dom.	700	300	Berlin . . .	540 E. . .	0 49 bef.	Lutherans, & Cal.
Germany . . .	650	530	Vienna . . .	600 E. . .	1 5 bef.	Cath. Luth. & Cal.
Bohemia . . .	210	175	Prague . . .	600 E. . .	1 4 bef.	Catholics.
Netherlands, } including Holland	360	260	Brussels . .	180 S. E.	0 16 bef.	Catholics.
			Amsterdam	130 E. . .	0 18 bef.	Calvinists.
France	600	550	Paris	260 S. E.	0 9 bef.	Catholics.
Spain	620	510	Madrid . . .	300 S. . .	0 17 aft.	Catholics.
Portugal . . .	350	120	Lisbon	850 S. W.	0 39 aft.	Catholics.
Switzerland . .	260	103	Bern, &c. . .	420 S. E.	0 28 bef.	Calvin., & Cath.
			Milan	550 S. E.	0 37 bef.	Catholics.
			Florence . . .	690 S. E.	0 44 bef.	Catholics.
			Rome	820 S. E.	0 50 bef.	Catholics.
Italy	650	200	Naples	910 S. E.	0 57 bef.	Catholics.
			{ Constantinople }	1320 S. E.	1 56 bef.	{ Mohammedans & Greek Ch.
Turkey in Europe }	840	600				

In addition to the BRITISH ISLES before mentioned, EUROPE contains the following principal ISLANDS.

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

DENMARK.

Beginning with the northern kingdoms and states, we shall first take notice of the Danish realm, which consists of Denmark Proper, the duchy of Holstein, and the island of Iceland. The dimensions and chief towns of these countries are given in the following table.

	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Towns.
Jutland . . .	6,700	155	98	Wiborg.
Sleswick . . .	2,000	70	63	Sleswick.
Holstein . . .	2,700	90	50	Gluckstadt.
Zeeland . . .	2,100	60	60	COPENHAGEN.
Funen . . .	1,274	40	30	Odensee.
Falster . . .	150	23	12	Nyckioeping.
Laaland . . .	230	32	12	Naskow.
Langeland . . .	70	30	3	Rudkioping.
Femeren . . .	50	14	5	Borg.
Alsen . . .	50	15	6	Sunderborg.
Moen . . .	40	14	5	Stega.
Bornholm . . .	150	20	12	Ronne.
Iceland . . .	42,000	330	210	Skalholt.

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Port Towns	Subject to
Copenhagen	Denmark.
Stockholm	Ditto.
St. Petersburg	Sweden.
Warsaw	Russia.
Berlin	Prussia.
Madrid	Spain.
Valencia	Ditto.
Malaga	Ditto.
Algeria	France.
Catania	K. of Sardinia.
Palermo	K. of Sic.
	{ Ionian Islands.
	Turkey.

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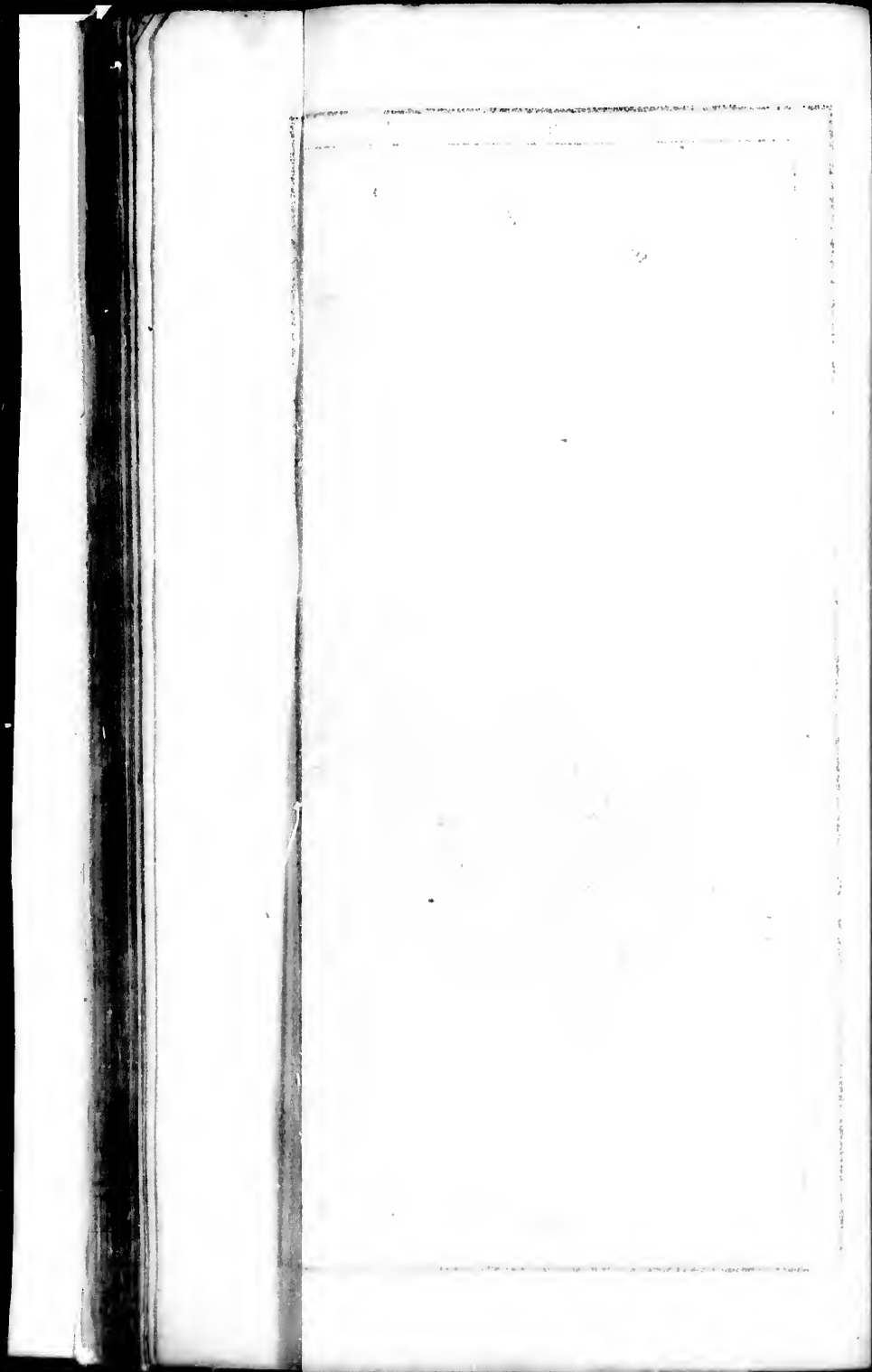
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London. Published Maps & Globes by J. Neumann, Neumann & the other Proprietors.



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London Published Map 1787 by J. M. van der Aa & the other Proprietors.



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

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	250	} between	{ 54 and 58, North latitude.
Breadth	120		

Containing about 16,000 square miles, with more than 90 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 deduction is seemingly unwarranted: all we know with certainty on this subject is, that the inhabitants of this part of Scandinavia were known by the appellation of Danes in the sixth century.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. } Denmark is divided on the north from Norway by the Skager-Rack, 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 composed of two parts; the peninsula of Jutland, anciently called *Chersonesus Cimbrica*, and the islands at the entrance of the Baltic. The peninsula is also divided into two parts—Jutland and Sleswick.

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 winds about for a hundred miles before it falls into the Categat; and the Eyder, the ancient boundary between Denmark and the German duchy of Holstein, which now belongs to this government.

In the northern part of Jutland, a creek, called *Lymford*, penetrates from the Categat through an extent of above sixty miles, to within two or three miles of the German Ocean: it is navigable, and contains many small islands.

By the canal of Kiel, a communication is maintained between the Baltic and the river Eyder, which flows into the German sea. It is above twenty miles in length, and is navigable by vessels of 120 tons.

MINERALS.] Some fullers' earth, alun, 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 vapors 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 Zeeland, Funen, and the south of Jutland, is fertile; and the agriculture of the two latter resembles that of England; but, in the northern parts, the country is less cultivated. Zeeland has for the most part a sandy soil; but it is fertile in grain and pasturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes.

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. Beside black cattle, hogs, sheep, and game, are abundant.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark affords few of these, 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, one of gold, the other of silver, and both of the form of hunting-horns. Many other articles of gold and silver, valuable jewels, Egyptian, Greek, and Roman antiquities, pictures by the most distinguished artists, and fine specimens of sculpture, enrich this museum.

POPULATION.] By an enumeration, made in 1759, of the people 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. Another estimate was ordered to be taken in 1769; and the number, with the inclusion of Iceland, then appeared to be about 2,017,000. If we subtract 720,000 for the loss of Norway, reckon the population of the substituted territory, and consider the probable increase, we may be disposed to attribute to the remaining monarchy about 1,400,000 subjects.

NATIONAL CHARACTER AND MANNERS.] The ancient inhabitants of Denmark possessed a degree of courage which approached even to ferocity: but the modern Danes, without being deficient in bravery or spirit, are civilised and humane. They are not remarkable for vivacity or talent; yet they are not so dull or heavy as the Dutch. The gentry are very fond of pomp and parade; and they imitate the French in their manners, dress, and sometimes in their gallantry. Like other northern nations, the Danes were long addicted to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but that practice is less prevalent than it was in former times. They are, in general, orderly in their behaviour, and so submissive to the laws, that criminal acts are infrequent among them.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Copenhagen was originally a settlement of sailors, founded by some wandering fishermen in the twelfth century, but is now the metropolis. It is very strong, and defended by four royal castles or forts. The port 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 (it is said) is capable of containing 500 vessels.

This city contains some fine squares and handsome streets. The king's new-market is surrounded by spacious edifices, one of which (the palace of Charlottenborg) is appropriated to the purposes of an academy of painting, sculpture, and architecture. In the Place of Amalienborg, is a mansion-house to which the royal family removed, on the destruction of the noble palace of Christianborg by fire; but a new edifice for royalty is nearly finished in a grand and splendid style. The population of the city amounts to 100,000 persons.

About twenty English miles from Copenhagen, is a large palace, called Fredericsborg. It was built by Christian IV., and, according to the architecture of his time, 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 labored performance in sculpture. The chimney-piece was once covered with plates of silver, richly ornamented; but the Swedish invaders tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithstanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. About two miles from Elsinour is a small palace, flat-roofed, with twelve windows in front, said to be built on the spot formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father.

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 about six thousand inhabitants.—Kiel, in Holstein, is much more populous, and more enlivened by trade.

Altona, situated on the Elbe, is a commercial town of great importance; and manufactures of velvet, silk, calico, stockings, gloves, leather, and mirrors, are here carried on with zealous industry. It is well built, and contains above 30,000 residents.

Elsinour, or Helsingøer, is a flourishing town, and with respect to commerce is only exceeded by Copenhagen itself. It is well fortified both on the land side and toward the sea. Here all vessels pay a toll, and, in passing the Sound, lower their top-sails.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The manufactures of Denmark are not very numerous or important; but they flourish more than they did in the last reign, being encouraged by the crown, and by the patriotism of distinguished nobles. All sorts of woollen articles are fabricated; but the cloth made in Jutland is the finest. Neither in this nor in the linen branch, is a sufficient quantity manufactured even for the use of the natives. Cotton goods are also wrought with neatness, if not in that number or with that perfection which would enable them to rival those of Great-Britain. Calico-printing is carried on with spirit: some silken articles are not ill manufactured; and, in Sleswick, lace of tolerable fineness is made even for exportation. In the art of making porcelain such progress has been made, that it is not much inferior to that of Dresden.

Denmark is well situated for commerce; its harbours are calculated for the reception of ships of all burthens, and its mariners are very expert in navigation. 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, stock-fish, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron. The imports are, salt, wine, brandy, and silk, from France, Portugal, and Italy. The Danes have great intercourse with Britain, and thence import broad-cloths, and all other articles manufactured in the great trading towns of England. In 1822, our imports from Denmark amounted to 110,700 pounds, and our exports to 363,700 pounds: in 1823, the former were 122,300 pounds, and the latter 511,700 pounds.

Commercial companies are established in Denmark, which trade to the East and West Indies, to the Mediterranean, and to Africa. In the East Indies, the Danes possess the settlement of Tranquebar and the Nicobar islands; in the West Indies, the islands of St. Thomas, St.

Croix, and St. John. On the coast of Guinea they have the fort of Christianborg.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT.] The ancient constitution of Denmark originally resembled the Gothic system. The king was chosen by the states or national assembly; and, in conjunction with the senate, he was invested with the executive power. He also commanded the army, and decided finally all the disputes which arose among his subjects. The legislative power was vested in the states, which were composed of the order of nobility, and 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 in the senate. These orders had their respective rights and privileges; the crown had also its prerogatives, and a fixed revenue arising out of lands which were appropriated to its support. This constitution had 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 councils were not regularly holden 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 even forced the crown to give up its prerogatives. Christian II., by endeavouring in an imprudent manner to stem the torrent of their oppression, lost his crown and his liberty: but Christian III., 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 III., when the nation had been exhausted by a war with Sweden, the people, exasperated by the arrogance and tyranny of the nobles, who claimed as their privilege an exemption from all taxes, determined to render the king despotic. In consequence of this resolution, deputies from the clergy and the commons were appointed to make the king a solemn tender of their liberties and services. The monarch accepted this offer, promising them relief and protection: the nobility, taken by surprise, were obliged to submit: and, on the 10th of January, 1661, each of the three orders signed 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. After this extraordinary revolution, the king deprived the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; but he took no method to relieve the people, who had been the instruments of investing him with the sovereign power; for he left them in a state of abject slavery.

LAWS.] The king enjoys all the rights of sovereign power. In a council, the members of which are named and displaced at his will, the laws are proposed, discussed, and receive the sanction of his high authority. He is supposed to be present to administer justice in his supreme court; and, therefore, he not only presides nominally in the sovereign court of justice, but has a throne erected in it, toward which the lawyers always address their discourses in pleading, as do the judges in delivering their opinions. Every year he is present at the opening of this court, and often gives the judges such instructions as he thinks proper. Their decision is final in all civil actions; but no criminal sentence of a capital nature can be carried into execution without the sanction of the royal signature.

The legal code, at present established in Denmark, was published by Christian V.: it is founded upon the code of Waldemar. 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, and support his ministers and favorites in any acts of violence and injustice, there is always a risque of tyranny and oppression.

From the time of the aristocratic usurpation to the year 1787, the peasants 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 consent, they were claimed as strayed cattle. These chains of feudal slavery were then broken, through the interest of his present majesty when heir apparent to the crown; the prisoners (for such they certainly might be called) were declared free; and other grievances, under which the peasants labored, were at the same time abolished.

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 arise from land and houses, and from different commodities, beside a poll-tax and stamp duties. The tolls paid by strangers arise chiefly from foreign ships that pass through the Sound into the Baltic. This tax was often disputed, being nothing more originally than a voluntary contribution of the merchants toward the expense of the light-houses on the coast; and certainly there was no reason for its payment on the part of the Swedes, who command the opposite side of the pass; but that nation and other powers, even Great-Britain, submitted to the demand. It has rarely produced more than 130,000 pounds. Since the loss of Norway, the royal revenues do not exceed a million sterling.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The present military force of Denmark consists of about 30,000 men; and the royal navy is said to comprehend twenty ships of the line and frigates.

ROYAL TITLES, ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The sovereign bears 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 badge of the former is suspended to a sky-blue riband, worn over the right shoulder. The knights of the Danebrog order wear a white riband with red edges, decorated with a diamond cross, and an embroidered star on the left breast, surrounded with the motto, *Pietate et Justitia*.

RELIGION.] The religion of Denmark is the Lutheran. The kingdom is divided into seven dioceses, beside one in Iceland. There is no archbishop; but the bishop of Zerland is metropolitan in Denmark. The income of his see is about 1000*l.* a year: the revenues of the other prelates vary between 400*l.* and 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 AND THE FINE ARTS.] The Danes in general have made no great figure in literature; but their astronomer Tycho Brahe was famous, Borrichius was an able chemist and botanist, and the Bartholines flourished as physicians; and the Round Tower and Christian's

Haven display the mechanical genius of Longomontanus. They have subsequently made some promising attempts in history, poetry, and the drama: the names of Langebek, Suhm, Holberg, and Ewald, have justly acquired celebrity; and the travels of Niebuhr are distinguished for intelligent research and accurate information. Among the Danish scholars and writers of recent times, may be mentioned the naturalists Fabricius and Vahl, the astronomer Bugge, the historians Haywish and Baden, the poets Guldberg and Baggesen, and the physician Cullisen. The most popular poet, now living, is, we believe, Ingemann.

In the fine arts, the Danes are now striving to excel; and, if they have no great painter, they have at least a sculptor of distinguished ability—Thorwaldsen.

UNIVERSITIES, SCHOOLS, AND LITERARY SOCIETIES.] The university of Copenhagen is provided with funds for the gratuitous support of 168 students: it has some able professors, and is in a flourishing state. At Kiel there is also a respectable university; and Altona boasts of a similar institution. Schools are established in every parish; and, by a new law, parents are compelled to send their children to school twice a week. A royal academy of sciences, and one for the cultivation of northern history, were respectively founded in 1742 and 1746.

LANGUAGE.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but German and French are spoken at court; and many of the nobility and gentry cultivate the English, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen as a necessary part of education. The Lord's Prayer, in Danish, is as follows: *Vor fader, som er i himmelin, heiligt vorde dit navn; tilkomme dit ryke; vorde din villic paa jorden som i himmelin; gjf os i dag vort daglige brod; og forlad os vor skyld, som vi forlade vore skyldener; og leed os ick i frestelse, men frels os fra ont; thi reget er dit, og kraft og herlyed 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, however, are unintelligible.

HISTORY.] The most ancient inhabitants of Denmark, of whom we have any account, were the Cimbri. 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 before the tenth century. Harold Blaataand, who succeeded his father Gormo in 945, was the first Christian king of Denmark. He was followed by his son Swein, who invaded and ravaged England, and who was succeeded, in 1014, by his son Canute the Great.

Under Canute, Denmark may be said to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give sanction to the expression; yet few interesting events in Denmark preceded the reign of Margaret, who acted as sovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She was a princess of splendid talents, and of masculine courage; but, 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. In 1448 the crown of Denmark devolved to Christian, count of Oldenburg, ancestor of the present royal family.

In 1513, Christian II., a tyrannical and sanguinary prince, ascended

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the throne, and married the sister of the emperor Charles V. When he had been 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., in 1629, was chosen for the head of the protestant league formed against the house of Austria; but, though personally brave, 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 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, he led his army over the ice to the island of Funen, where he surprised the Danish troops, took Odensee and Nyborg, and marched over the Great Belt to besiege Copenhagen itself. Cromwell, who then governed England, interposed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roschild, by which he ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleckingen, 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, until a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and defeated the Swedes. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favor 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 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 Bornholm was restored to the Danes, while Rugen, and the three conquered provinces, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not restore to Denmark all she had lost, the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic, 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. He 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 troops were 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, until he was defeated entirely at the battle of Landskron: and, having nearly exhausted his dominions in military operations, and being abandoned by his allies, he was forced to sign a treaty, on the terms prescribed by France, in 1679. He died in 1699, and was succeeded by Frederic IV., who, like his predecessors, maintained his pretensions upon Holstein, and probably would have become master of that duchy, had not the English and Dutch fleets put an end to the siege of Tomningen, while the young king of Sweden,

Charles XII., landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to assist the duke. His Danish majesty now agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favor. By another treaty, concluded with the States-General, Frederic obliged himself to furnish the confederates with troops, and afterward took a very active part against the French in the wars with queen Anne. Being still hostile to the Swedes, he attacked them with vigor, when their king was in exile at Bender, and made a descent upon Swedish Pomerania, and another, in 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadebusch, and his favorite city of Altona was laid in ashes. He revenged himself by seizing a great part of Ducal Holstein, and forcing the Swedish general, count Steinbock, to surrender himself prisoner, with all his troops. In 1716, his success was so great, by taking Tonningen and Stralsund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wismar, that his allies began to suspect he was aiming at the sovereignty of all Scandinavia. Charles, returning from exile, renewed the war against Denmark with the most implacable violence; but, on the death of that prince, Frederic durst not refuse the offer of his Britannic majesty's mediation; in consequence of which, a peace was concluded, which left him in possession of the duchy of Sleswick. He died in 1730, after having, two years before, seen his capital nearly reduced to ashes by an accidental fire. His son and successor, Christian Frederic, or Christian VI., made the best use of his power, and of the advantages with which he mounted the throne, by cultivating peace with all his neighbours, and promoting the happiness of his subjects, whom he relieved from some oppressive taxes. He died in 1746; and his pacific example was followed by his son Frederic V., who, though he was the son-in-law of king George II., declined all concern in the German war. Christian VII., who ascended the throne in 1766, married Caroline Matilda, sister of George III.; but this alliance, though seemingly auspicious, had a very unfortunate termination. In 1772, this princess, whose great influence over her husband had excited the jealousy and odium of the queen-dowager, was accused of an adulterous intercourse with count Struensee, a German adventurer, who had raised himself by his talents to the station of prime minister. The count and his friend Brandt were seized, put in irons, and very rigorously treated in prison: both underwent long and frequent examinations, received sentence of death, and were beheaded. 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, his confessions were so full and explicit, that his guilt was scarcely doubted. His Britannic majesty sent a small squadron to convey the queen to Germany, and appointed the city of Zell for the place of her future residence. She died there of a malignant fever, in the twenty-fourth year of her age.

In 1784, another court revolution took place. The queen-dowager's friends were removed; a new council was formed under the auspices of the prince-royal; and, as the king appeared to have a debility of understanding, it was required that every instrument should not only be signed by him, but be countersigned by the prince.

After a long interval of peace, the Danish court, in 1801, 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 Nelson, who forced the line of defence formed by the Danish fleet, and compelled the Danes to agree to a cessation of arms to preserve their capital. In this short war they lost their islands in the West Indies, and their settlement of Tranquebar; but, the dispute between England and the northern powers being soon after amicably adjusted, their foreign possessions were restored to them.

Conceiving that the vast and still increasing power of the French emperor rendered it impossible for Denmark to resist him, or to refuse any thing that he might demand, the British court resolved to obtain her fleet, that it might not be employed against our country. A secret expedition was therefore planned; and, in August 1807, a great armament proceeded to Copenhagen. A proclamation was immediately issued by the commanders, declaring the circumstances under which they were obliged to make a descent; that the Danish fleet was the sole object of their enterprise, which was undertaken entirely in self-defence to prevent the resources of Denmark from being directed against Great-Britain, and that, if the fleet should be delivered up, every ship would be restored, after a peace with France, in the same condition in which it was then surrendered. The Danish government, however, determined on resistance; and the city was, therefore, bombarded for four days, until general Peiman, seeing that any farther opposition must be unavailing, sent out a flag of truce. The articles, by which the fleet was delivered up, were then settled; and the English brought away 16 ships of the line, 15 frigates, six brigs, and 23 gun-boats, beside vessels on the stocks, and a prodigious quantity of stores from the arsenals. The loss of the British, in this attack, was trifling, while 1500 of the Danes lost their lives, and a considerable part of the city was consumed.

While the war, which this dreadful outrage produced, continued between Denmark and Great Britain, the imbecile king died, on the 13th of March, 1808; and prince Frederic, who had long acted as sovereign, became king in his own right. He wished to inflict vengeance on his insolent enemies, while he had not the means of making a powerful impression. Some small vessels were quickly constructed; and these, with a number of privateers, molested the British commerce; but the trade of his people, at the same time, severely suffered. The Danes were also involved in a war with the Swedes, whom they were desired by Bonaparte to attack; but, satisfied with the defence of Norway, they made little impression upon their northern enemies.

When a successor to the throne of Sweden was required, in 1810, the king of Denmark offered himself as a candidate: but he was obliged to yield to the superior influence of marshal Bernadotte. He continued to be at variance both with the British and Swedish courts; but, while he thus gratified the ruler of France, he did not so far promote the ambitious views of that restless tyrant, as to send a great auxiliary army against the Russian emperor. When the French, in 1813, were rapidly retreating from Germany, he began to dread the vengeance of Sweden. His troops were harassed in various conflicts; and he could not have saved his continental territories, if he had not agreed to an armistice, which led to a pacific treaty. He even purchased the forbearance of the confederates by consenting to the cession of Norway and of Danish Lapland, without regard to the inclinations of his subjects in those countries. After the settlement of the affairs of France, he acquiesced in the arrangements of the congress of Vienna; and his wishes were so moderate, that he accepted the insignificant duchy of Lauenburg, instead of the province of Pomerania and the isle of Rugen, which were at first offered to him

in return for Norway. When the German empire, in 1815, assumed a new form, he was admitted into the confederation as duke of Holstein; and, since that time, he has pursued a quiet course, attending to the interest of his people, and promoting the prosperity of his diminished realm. He is, in the true sense of the expression, a patriot king. He is affable, friendly, and humane; frugal in his domestic expenditure, that he may be better enabled to be liberal to others; he encourages every useful art, patronises every philanthropic institution, and allays, by benevolence and equity, the sternness of power and the rigors of justice.

Frederic VI., king of Denmark, was born Jan. 28, 1768, and, in 1790, was married to Maria Sophia Frederica of Hesse-Cassel, by whom he has issue—Caroline, born Nov. 8, 1793; Wilhelmina Maria, born Jan. 17, 1808.

Christian, the crown prince, cousin to the king, was born Sept. 18, 1786. In 1806, he espoused the princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg, and, after her death, a sister of the duke of Augustenburg.

ICELAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Breadth 210	} between {	63 and 66, north latitude.
Length 330		13 and 24, west longitude.

Containing 42,000 square miles, with more than one inhabitant to each.

NAME.] ICELAND evidently derives its name from the great masses of ice which float in the surrounding ocean.

MOUNTAINS, VOLCANOES, LAKES, RIVERS.] Enormous ice-mountains occupy a large portion of the surface of Iceland. These are called *yokuls*; and they have, in general, terrene and rocky mountains for their bases. The most extensive yokul is Klofa, in the eastern division of the island. It forms a vast mountainous chain, filling (it is said) a space of not less than 3000 square miles. The Oræfa yokul is the highest mountain on the island, its height being calculated at 6240 feet, though some represent Snæfell as higher. It abounds with volcanic fissures, and exhibits the opposite effects of extreme cold and fervent heat. The most remarkable volcano is that of Hecla; a mountain which rises to the height of 5000 feet. Its eruptions have been numerous and dreadful; but the greatest eruption in Iceland, if not the most tremendous of any recorded in history, was that in 1783, which is said to have extended eighty miles in length, and forty 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. It was not Hecla which thus exploded; but Skafta, a volcano situated to the north-east of that mountain. It consists of twenty conical hills; and these (says Mr. Henderson) served as so many furnaces, from which the melted matter was discharged. "Immense floods of red-hot lava were poured down from the hills with amazing velocity, and, spreading over the low country, burned up men, cattle, churches,

houses, and every thing they attacked in their progress." Famine and pestilence were the consequences of this horrible visitation; and, within two years, "not fewer than 9336 human beings, 28,000 horses, 11,461 head of cattle, and 190,488 sheep, perished on the island;"—a very serious loss for such an ill-peopled and sterile spot!

Of the lakes of Iceland, that which is 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 Oxarfjord, and the Bruara, 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, chaledony, and malachite, or copper stalactites. The substance called surlurbrand is a remarkable fossil: it is evidently wood, not quite petrified, but indurated, which drops asunder as soon as it is exposed to the air. It is found at a great depth, and indicates that trees were formerly much more abundant in the island than they are at present.

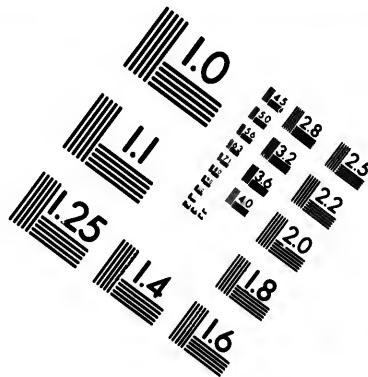
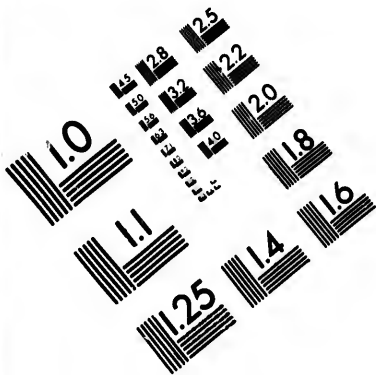
CLIMATE, SOIL.] The temperature of the air in Iceland, in its ordinary state, is moderate: the cold of winter is not rigorous; but the weather in summer is subject to great inequalities; and violent tempests, accompanied sometimes with piercing cold, frequently destroy the fruits of the earth. The soil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

VEGETABLES, ANIMALS.] As the interior of Iceland (says Mr. Henderson) consists of a vast inhospitable desert, traversed in various directions by barren mountains, between which are immense tracts of lava and volcanic sand, it cannot be supposed that vegetation flourishes, or that the fruits of the earth are abundant: yet it appears that corn was produced on this spot in distant times. At present grass is the chief product, beside potatoes and other ordinary vegetables. Forests of considerable extent were observable on the island in former ages; but now few trees grow, and those which appear are miserably stunted.

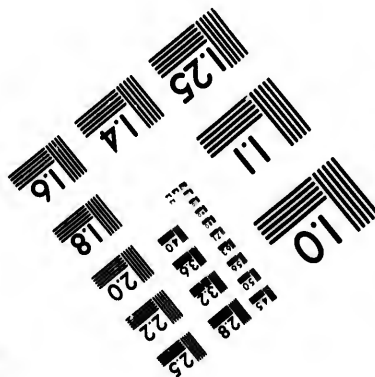
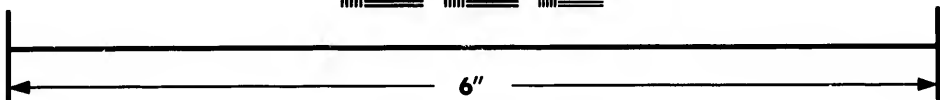
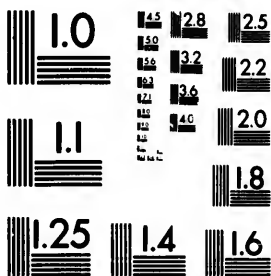
Iceland has not any wild quadrupeds, except rats, cats, and white and brown foxes. The horses are small, but stout and serviceable. Birds are extremely numerous; there are several kinds of falcons, swans, and eider-ducks, which furnish the inhabitants with eggs and a valuable down.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among the curiosities of Iceland the hot spouting springs are particularly remarkable. Some of these throw up columns of water, of several feet in thickness, to the height of seventy or eighty feet. 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. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Von-Troil says that he does not remember ever to have observed it under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geyser, Rœynum, and Langarvalla, he found it at 212 (the boiling heat); and in the last place, in the ground, in a small hot current, at 213 degrees. It is very common for some of the spouting springs to cease, and others to rise up in their stead. Frequent earthquakes, and subterranean noises, heard at the time, cause great terror to the people. 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.





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The largest spouting spring is called Geyser. In approaching it, a loud roaring noise is heard, like the rushing of a torrent precipitating itself from stupendous rocks. The water spouts several times in a day, but always by starts, and after certain intervals.

The moveable ice-fields may be reckoned among the natural curiosities of this island. Some of the yokuls suddenly move, and masses of ice travel over the adjacent country, and do not stop or recede before they have committed great devastation. Accumulations of ice also frequently arrive on the coast of Iceland from Greenland. The field-ice is of the thickness of two or three fathoms, 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 are frequently left in shoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground; and in that state remain for many months undissolved, chilling the ambient atmosphere. When many such masses are floating together, the wood, which is often drifted along between them, is pressed with so much violence, that it is said it sometimes take fire;—a circumstance which has occasioned fabulous accounts of the ice being in flames. A number of bears arrive with the ice, which commit great ravages, particularly among the sheep; they are, however, generally soon destroyed, or driven back.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in Iceland may rather be estimated under 50,000 than above. 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, almost depopulated the island; and, in 1707 and 1708, the small-pox carried off 16,000 persons. Iceland has also suffered extremely at different times by famine.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Icelanders in general are middle-sized, and well made, though not very strong. A frank open countenance, a florid complexion, and yellow flaxen hair, are more frequently observable among them than contrary appearances. The women are shorter than the men, and more disposed to corpulence. The insularity of the climate, poorness of living, and the want of proper exercise, prevent either sex from living to a great age. They are an honest, faithful, well-meaning people, very hospitable and obliging. Their chief employment is, attending to fishing and the care of their cattle. On the coasts, the men employ their time in fishing both in winter and summer; and the women prepare the fish, and sew and spin. The men also prepare leather, and work at several mechanic trades; and some work in gold and silver. They likewise manufacture a coarse kind of cloth, which they call *wadmal*. 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. They have a high regard for their clergy; and the ministers in general so conduct themselves, as to deserve all the respect which they receive.

The houses of the Icelanders are generally ill-constructed: in some places they are built of drift wood; and in others they are raised of lava, cemented with moss. Their roofs are covered with sods laid over rafters, or sometimes over ribs of whales, which are more durable and less expensive than wood. They have not even a chimney in any of their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the hearth, between stones, and the smoke issues from a square hole in the roof. Their food principally consists of dried fish, sour butter, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat.

Bread is so scarce among them, that there is hardly a peasant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

With regard to the dress of the Icelanders, it may be observed, that the men wear shirts made of wadmal, blue waistcoats, jackets, and trowsers, edged with a red stripe; and a large cloak is used to defend them from the rain or cold. The ordinary female dress consists of a chemise, a petticoat, and a jacket; and, in their houses, many of the women are content with the two former: but they frequently cover and adorn their heads with a stiffened turban of white linen, which, after rising to the height of a foot by a backward curve, bends forward, and terminates in a square form. It is usually fastened to the head by a dark-coloured kerchief, so as completely to hide the hair; but, when it is worn by a bride, it is enriched by a fillet embroidered with gold lace. The state-dress of a lady is both cumbersome and ornamental. Two or three petticoats, fastened by a velvet girdle, which is studded with polished stones,—an apron bordered with dark velvet, and hung with trinkets of silver or gilt brass,—a rich bodice, a black jacket with long and tight sleeves, and a black cloak, beside a thick ruff embroidered with silver, and chains hanging from the neck with medals in front,—exhibit the pompous extreme of Icelandic fashion.

TOWNS, TRADE, REVENUE.] Skalholt was long considered as the capital of Iceland: but that honor is claimed by Reykiavik, situated on the eastern coast, the present seat of government and justice. At this town is an annual fair, which, however, is very thinly attended. The commerce of the island was carried on by a Danish company before the year 1788, when it was declared free for every subject of the realm. The exports are fish, salted meat, tallow, train-oil, wool, coarse cloth, skins, eider-down, feathers, and sulphur: among the imports are corn, tea, coffee, tobacco, wine, brandy, salt, wood, iron, and flax.

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 not exceeding 50,000 crowns.

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 every year to inspect the state of the island: but the king of Denmark now appoints a governor, who constantly resides there. Each district has an officer, who acts as a magistrate, 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 according to the old Icelandic ordinances. Men convicted of capital crimes are put to death by beheading or hanging; but, when a woman is condemned to die, she is sewn up in a sack and thrown into the sea.

RELIGION.] Thorvald Kodranson, an Icelandic pirate, being converted to Christianity by a Saxon bishop, introduced his new religion, in 981, among his pagan countrymen. The doctrines and forms of the church of Rome were followed for some centuries: but, in 1551, the Lutheran system was established. Two bishops, those of Skalholt and Holum, governed the church both before and after the Reformation; but, in 1797, the united sees gave way to one episcopate, which was founded at Reykiavik. The bishop's revenue is about 200*l*. All the ministers are native Icelanders, and many of them receive a salary of four hundred rix-dollars from the king of Denmark, exclusive of what they obtain

from their congregations. Some, however, 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 with zeal. It appears from some ancient chronicles, that astronomy, natural history, and other branches of science, were studied with success by many of the natives, who were also particularly conversant in poetry. It was on this island that the *scalds* or bards indulged their poetic taste with peculiar avidity; and hence arose the Edda, in which the Scandinavian mythology is fancifully portrayed. At present, although there are few schools on the island, the people of the lowest class are not so ignorant as they are in many parts of Europe; and a peasant is seldom to be found, who, beside being well instructed in the principles of religion, is not also acquainted with the history of his country and the works of its bards.

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

Fader vor, som est i himlum, halgad warde thitt nama : tilkomme thitt rikie : skie thitt vilie so som i himmalam so. ogh po jordanne : wort dachlichia brodh gif os i dagh : ogh forlat os nora skuldur : so som ogh vi forlate them os skildighe are, ogh inled os ikkie i frestalsan : utan frels os ifra ondo. Amen.

ANTIQUITIES.] In Iceland are found circles of upright stones and transverse stones, in a manner similar, though under 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 Ingulf and Hiorleif, 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 Hacon 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 FEROE ISLANDS

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 on the north and north-west. Stromoe, the largest island of this groupe, twenty-four miles long, and eight broad. These islands are not unfruitful; but the few trees which they exhibit are small and feeble. The inhabitants amount to 5000: their manners are simple and unaffected, and their industry deserves commendation. They export feathers, eider-down, and some coarse articles of dress.

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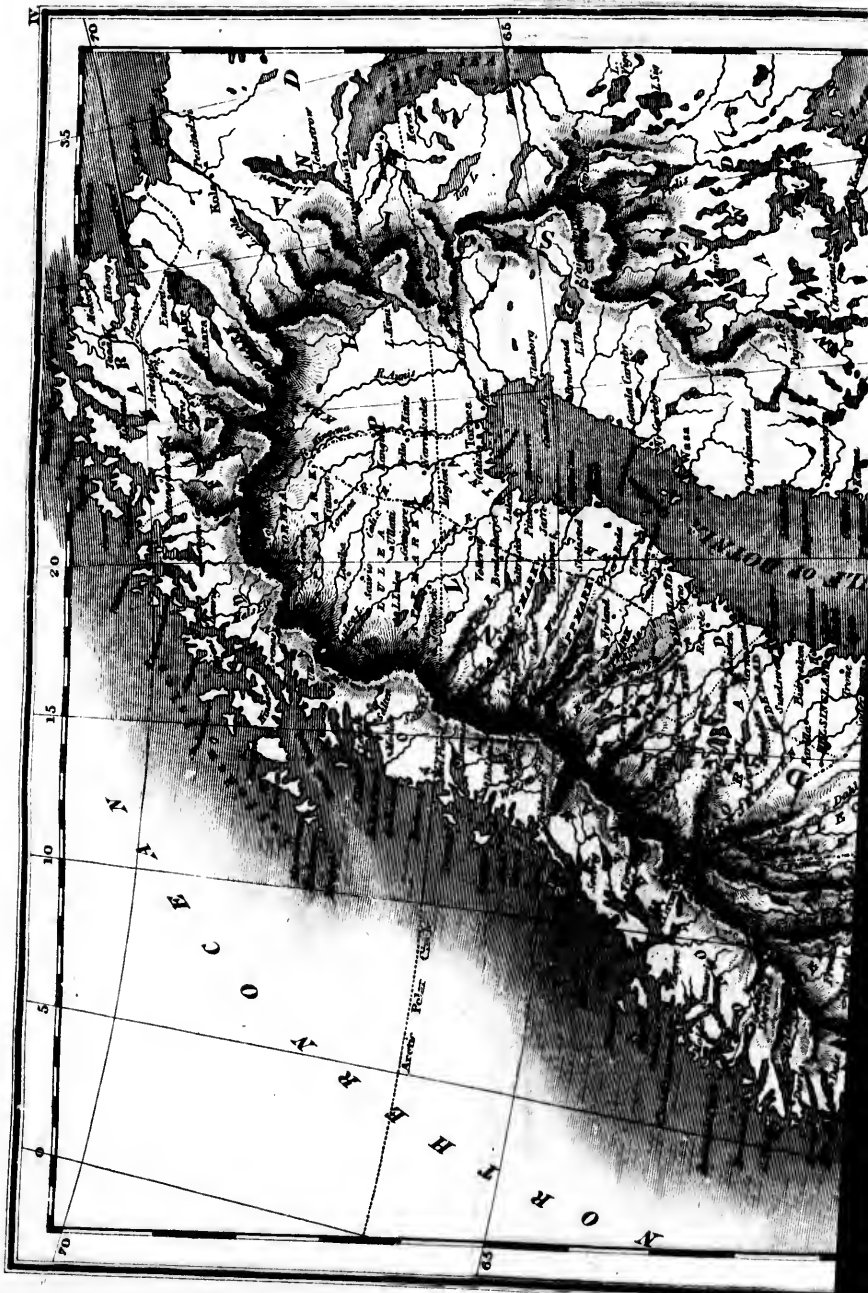
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SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

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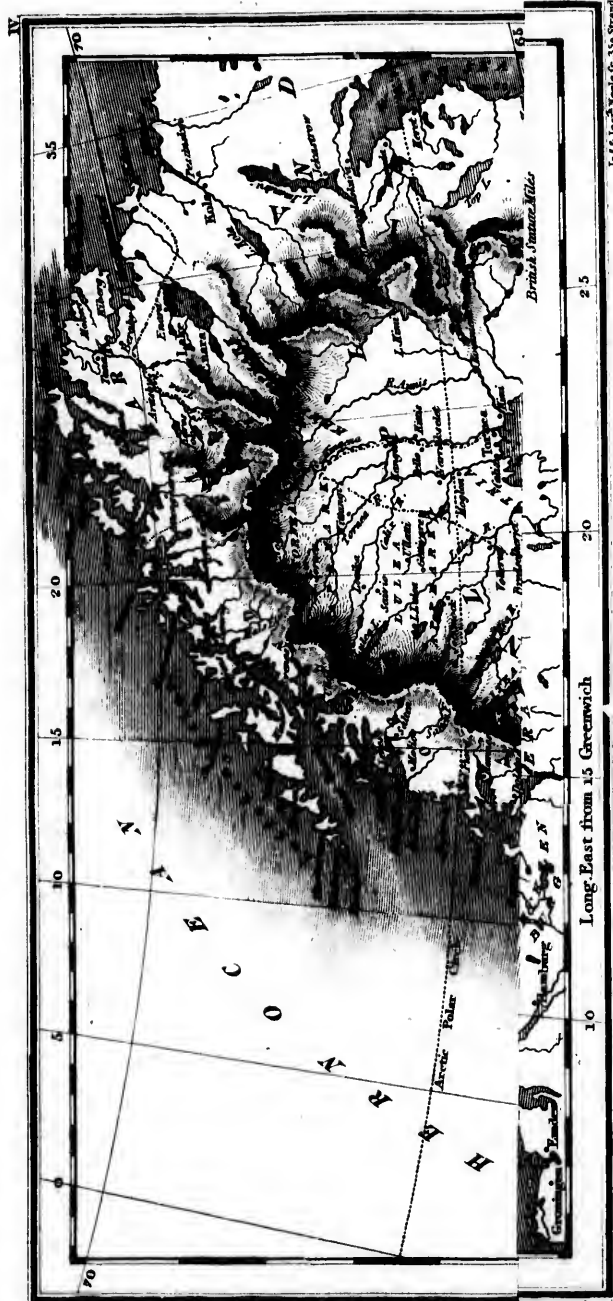
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Long East from 15 Greenwich

J. & J. Neale, No. 335 Strand

London: Published May 17, 1877, by J. Neale, No. 335 Strand, and the other Proprietors.



British Islands

Long East from 15 Greenwich

London: Published by J. Neumann, Nees & Co. in the year 1855.

SWEDEN.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 950	}	between {
Breadth 400		
		10 and 19, East longitude.

Containing 160,000 square miles, with more than fifteen 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.

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 Norwegian Lapland; and on the east by the Baltic, the gulf of Bothnia, and the Russian territories. The kingdom is divided into four general parts; Sweden Proper, Gothland, Norland, and Swedish Lapland. These are subdivided into the following provinces.

SWEDEN PROPER.

Upland
Sudermanland
Nerike
Westermanland
Dalecarlia

CHIEF TOWNS.

{ Stockholm.	{ N. lat. 59° 20'.
	{ E. lon. 18° 3'.
{ Upsal.	
{ Nikeping.	
{ Cerebro.	
{ Westeras.	
{ Fahlun.	
{ Hedemora.	

GOTHLAND.

{ East Gothland
{ Smaland
{ Island of Oeland
{ Island of Gothland

Norkoeping.
Calmar.
Borgholm.
Wisby.

{ West-Gothland
{ Wermerland
{ Dahlsland
{ Bohnslehn

{ Gothenborg.	{ N. lat. 57° 42'.
	{ E. lon. 11° 38'.
{ Carlstadt.	
{ Amal.	
{ Kongshall.	

{ Hochland
{ Schonen
{ Blekingen

Halmstadt.
Lund.
Carlsrona.

NORLAND.

Gestrikeland
Helsingland
Medelpad
Jemtland
Herjedalen
Angermanland

Gefle.
Hadwikshall.
Sundswall.
Karlstrom.
Linonedall.
Hoernosand.

West Bothnia

{ Umea.	{ N. lat. 65° 50'.
{ Tornea.	{ E. lon. 24° 12'.
{ Pitea.	

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London: Published by J. Murray & Co. in the Strand.

SWEDISH LAPLAND.

Asele Lapmark
Umea Lapmark
Pitea Lapmark
Lulea Lapmark
Tornea Lapmark
Kimi Lapmark

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

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, FORESTS.] The face of the country 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 deemed the highest of this chain. Kinekulle, on the banks of the lake Wener, consists of a number of terraces rising one above another. Rætvik, another mountain, is estimated to be 6000 feet above the level of the sea. These, as well as the other mountains of Sweden, are composed of granite, calcareous stone, and slate. The basis of the majority 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. Beside pine, birch, poplar, mountain-ash, and fir, abound in them. In these forests conflagrations are remarkably frequent, which consume or scorch the trees to a great extent. 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 to them to make use of the timber thus damaged in the crown forests, without paying the usual tax on it.

LAKES, RIVERS, CANALS.] The lakes are very numerous. The largest is the Wener, which is about 100 English miles long, and between 50 and 60 broad. It contains several islands, and receives 24 rivers. The Weter 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 great number of small islands, some of which are three or four miles in extent, and extremely fertile. At Stockholm this lake communicates with the Baltic, by two rapid currents. The Hielmar washes Sudermanland and Nerike: it is about 40 miles in length, and 20 in breadth, and communicates with the Mælar.

The principal river 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. The rivers Gotha and Motala are the outlets of the lakes Wener and Weter.

Inland navigation has not been entirely neglected by the Swedes. The canal of Trolhætta, which was completed in 1800, was wrought with great labor, assisted by the force of gunpowder, through the midst of rocks. Its object was to open a communication between the North Sea and the Lake Wener, by forming a new channel where the Gotha is rendered unnavigable by cataracts. The length of this canal, in which are nine locks, is nearly three miles, the width 36 feet, and the depth

in some places above 50. A canal has since been constructed from the Wener to Cerebro and the lake of Hiemar; and this has been extended through the sluices of Arboga to the lake of Mælär, so as to open an advantageous communication with the Baltic.

METALS, MINERALS.] The mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron, in Sweden, constitute the principal wealth of the country. In 1738 a gold-mine was discovered near Adelfors; but it never was very productive, and at present will not defray the expense of working. The silver-mines, though greatly reduced in value, are more profitable; but the most valuable are the mines of copper and iron, though these are much less productive than they were formerly.

The copper-mines near Fahlun, in Dalecarlia, have been worked for nearly 1000 years: they are sunk to the depth of 1080 feet, and employ 1000 workmen. The copper is found, not in veins, but in great masses. In the principal mine at this place, Dr. Clarke found the heat so oppressive, that he could not proceed to the bottom. When any air was admitted from the doors, and the sulphureous vapors were thus partially dispersed, whole beds of pyritous matter appeared in a state of ignition. Walls had been constructed to oppose the progress of this element, which, if not kept in subjection at the same time, by the smothering nature of its own exhalations, would destroy the mines.

The iron-mines, near Danemora, in Smaland, 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, which is one immense lump of iron ore, above 400 feet high, and three English miles in circuit. Sweden likewise produces porphyry, rock-crystal, cobalt, antimony, zinc, and molybdena; and mines of coal have been discovered in Smaland.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.] The cold of the winter in Sweden is intense. When the spring has continued for a week or two, 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 indifferent, but in some valleys surprisingly fertile. 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.

The cultivation of tobacco has succeeded very well in this country. It grows in the greatest quantities in the province of Upland; and Sweden at present does not require any importation of this commodity from foreign countries, except to have it 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 Biorneborg 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 perfection in dry seasons. The heaths and woods abound with the juniper, the bilberry, and the cranberry.

The wild animals of Sweden are wolves, bears, beavers, elks, rein-deer, foxes, hares, and squirrels. The Swedish wolves are not so fierce as those which infest the southern parts of Europe. In winter the foxes and squirrels become grey, and the hares as white as snow. The horses and oxen, and the cattle in general, are small, but hardy. About 300 species of birds are found in the country; the most remarkable is the *falco umbrinus*, a bird between the hawk and the eagle. The rivers and lakes abound in fish; and several species of them, pike and salmon in particular, are pickled and exported.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] These consist in the cataracts, and the scenery of the forests and lakes. About 50 miles from Gothenborg are the famous cataracts of Trolhætta, formed by the river Gotha, which issues from the lake Wener, and, being united after several breaks, falls with its whole and undivided stream into so deep a bed of water, that large mats, 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 Gede, deemed little inferior to that of the Rhine at Schaffhausen.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants amounted in 1751 to 2,229,661; in 1772, to 2,584,261. In 1809, when Finland formed a part of the realm, the population was calculated at 3,320,600 persons; but in 1811, when that province was no longer an appendage of Sweden, the amount was estimated at 2,414,150; and, even without reckoning the inhabitants of the added kingdom of Norway, the number is now considerably greater.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Swedes are in general tall, well-formed, and capable of enduring the greatest fatigues. They are lively in their conversation, good-humored, hospitable, industrious, sincere, honest, and brave. 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 Gustavus III. 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 colored sash, and ribands. The Swedes, in general, wear short dresses, of a blue or black hue. 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 crapes. There is no country in the world where the women do so much work as in Sweden; they manage the plough, thresh the grain, row boats, serve the bricklayers, and carry burthens.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] An unusually small portion 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.

Stockholm is situated upon seven small rocky islands, beside 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 remarkably clear, and of such a depth that ships of the largest burthen can approach the quay, which is of considerable breadth, and lined with

spacious buildings and warehouses. Toward the sea, about two or three miles from the town, the harbour is contracted into a strait, and winds among high rocks; and the prospect is terminated by distant hills, over-spread with forests. The central island, from which the city derives its name, and the Ritterholm, are the handsomest parts of the town. The houses of the nobles, the mint, the exchange, and other public buildings, decorate the former isle: but its chief ornament is the palace, which is built in the Grecian style, and is very spacious and magnificent. In the northern suburb stands the opera-house, in which Gustavus III. was shot: externally, it is not splendid; but the interior is very elegant. With an exception of the suburbs, where the houses are chiefly of wood, painted red, the generality of the buildings are of stone, or brick stuccoed. The inhabitants are about 73,000 in number.

Upsal, formerly the metropolis of Sweden, 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. It only contains 3000 inhabitants, beside the students, of whom there are about 500.

Gothenborg, the second city of Sweden in magnitude, stands partly on the ridges of rocks, and partly in a plain, and is consequently divided into the upper and lower towns. The latter is entirely level, intersected by several canals; 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. The population, in 1791, scarcely exceeded 15,000; but, in 1811, it amounted to 24,850. The estimate is now higher, as the trade of the town continues to increase.

Carlsrona, the station of the royal navy, has a harbour capable of containing 100 ships of the line. It is celebrated for its covered docks, and for the practice of making an artificial rise and fall of water, to remedy the want of the ebb and flow of the tide. Its inhabitants amount to 15,000.

Gefle is a considerable town, better built than many of the Swedish towns: It has about 11,000 inhabitants, who carry on a great foreign trade.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The manufactures of Sweden were very inconsiderable before the middle of the 17th century; but then, by the assistance of the Dutch and Flemings, the natives began some manufactures of glass, starch, tin, woollen, silk, sope, and leather; and they have now some of sail-cloth, cotton, linen, fustian, and other stuffs. Vast quantities of copper are wrought by the Swedes. They have founderies for cannon, forges for anchors and fire-arms, armories, wire and flattening mills, mills also for fulling, and for boring and stamping: they likewise build many ships for sale. Their exports principally consist of iron, copper, timber, pitch, tar, herrings, and fish-oil. Their imports are, rye and other kinds of grain, flax, hemp, tobacco, sugar, coffee, silk, and wines.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Sweden has undergone many changes. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free, and during many centuries the crown was elective; but, after various revolutions, Charles XII. 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 too low; but, in 1772, the whole system was changed by Gustavus III. in the most unexpected manner. By that event the Swedes, instead of having the particular defects of their constitution rectified, found their king invested with exorbitant authority. By the form of government then introduced, he might assemble and dissolve the states whenever he pleased: he had the sole disposal of the army, the navy, finances, and all employments civil and military; and, though he could not 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 might impose some taxes till the states could be assembled; but of this necessity he was to be the judge, and the meeting of the states depended wholly upon his will and pleasure; and, when they were assembled, they were to deliberate upon nothing but what he thought proper to lay before them.

On the deposition of Gustavus IV., a new constitution was given to Sweden, by which the government is vested in the king and a council of nine members, who are to be natives of Sweden, of the evangelical religion, and to be responsible for their advice and the acts of the king. The states of the kingdom are to be assembled every fifth year at Stockholm; and the king can impose no taxes without the consent of the diet, nor may he deprive, or cause any subject to be deprived of his life, liberty, honor, or property, without trial and judgement; nor can he harass or persecute any person for his religious opinions, provided the promulgation of them, or the exercise of his religion, be not injurious to the community. No diet, however, can be of longer duration than three months, unless business should require it. This constitution is apparently favorable to the freedom of the subject; but, as it suffers the king to decide against the opinions of all his counsellors, and does not sufficiently secure their responsibility, it affords no effectual check to the despotic inclinations of an artful and ambitious prince. At the present moment, there is no danger of the exercise of tyranny; but the nation ought vigilantly to guard against its return.

LAWs.] Sweden is not governed by the Roman or civil law, but by its own code. There are four superior courts; the principal towns have inferior tribunals; and a kind of assise is likewise holden twice in the year by provincial 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 acquiesce in 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 suffering decapitation, instead of being quartered, are burned. No capital punishment is inflicted without a royal confirmation of the sentence. 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 revial of the sentence; or 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 labor. Criminals were tortured to extort confession, before the reign of Gustavus III., who, in 1773, abolished this cruel and absurd practice.

REVENUE.] The revenues of Sweden, arising from the rents of crown-lands, capitation taxes, customs, and various other articles, amount to about 1,500,000*l.*; but the annual expenditure generally exceeds that sum; and loans are therefore necessary for the support of the government.

ARMY AND NAVY.] No country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes; but, in recent times, their reputation has in some degree declined. In 1791, according to Boisgelin, the standing army consisted of 14,500 men, and the less regular troops of 33,000; but, in 1812, if we may admit the accuracy of Dr. Thomson's account, the troops amounted to 50,000 men, beside a supplementary army of 30,000. These soldiers (he adds) may be viewed in the light of a kind of militia. They are raised by conscription in each province; and, being furnished by the people with houses and fields instead of ordinary pay, they have evidently an interest in the country which they defend. As general peace now prevails, the regular army has been greatly reduced.

In 1824, the royal navy, according to Mr. Wilson, consisted of nine ships of the line, six frigates, and 300 gun-boats.

ROYAL TITLES, 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, Stormar, and Ditmarsch; count of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst. The orders of knighthood are the Seraphim, the Sword, the Polar Star, and that of Vasa. The second is bestowed for military merit, and the third for civil services. The ribands worn by the knights are blue, yellow, black, and green.

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 Swedes were, for a long time, very intolerant to those of other religious professions; and severe laws were in force against catholic priests. But they have now greatly relaxed from this bigotry; and various sects are tolerated in Sweden, Jews and catholics not excepted.

LITERATURE AND THE FINE ARTS.] In natural history, chemistry, and mineralogy, several natives of Sweden have attained to particular eminence; and in these departments of science the names of the great Linnæus, Sparman, Wallerius, Quist, Klingenskierna, and Thunberg, are especially conspicuous. Rudbeck, who patronised Linnæus, is deservedly celebrated in the annals both of anatomy and natural history. Cronstedt, Scheele, and Bergman, excelled in mineralogy and chemical analysis; and the fame of Berzelius is likewise high in those branches of science. The Swedes have also not neglected the cultivation of general literature. Speaking of those who were patronised by queen Christina, Dr. Clarke says, "In this list was signalised one whom the Swedes consider as the greatest genius which their country has produced;—namely, Sternhielm; known among them as a poet and philosopher of such eminence, that they have bestowed upon him the name of Polyhistor." Pufendorf, indeed, who was distinguished among them in the reign of Charles XI., was not a native of their country; but, in more modern times, Dalin and Lagerbring acquired the fame of able historians; Creutz was an ingenious poet; and some interesting dramatists and miscellaneous writers might be mentioned, among whom were Gustavus III., the count de Gyllenborg, Leopold, and Kellgren.

The fine arts were zealously encouraged by Gustavus III.; but no

great architect or painter arose under his sway, though the fame of Sergel, as a sculptor, is deservedly high.

UNIVERSITIES.] There are only two universities in Sweden; those of Upsal and Lund; of which the latter is evidently declining, while the former is still in a flourishing state, having twenty-three professors, some of whom are able and learned men, beside privileged teachers. There are likewise twelve seminaries for the education of youth, called *gymnasia*. In every large town there is 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. There are also in Sweden many literary and scientific academies, most of which publish memoirs of their transactions.

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

Fader war, som ast i himlom, helyat warde tit namn ; tilkomme tit rike ; ske tin wilje, sasom i himmelen sa och pa jordene ; gif oss i dag wart dagelige brod ; och forlat oss ware skulder, sasom och wi forlatom them oss skyldige aro ; och inled oss ick i frestelse, utan frell 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 mounds 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.

HISTORY.] The early history of this kingdom is confused and often doubtful, but sufficiently replete with murders, massacres, and ravages. The first king is unknown; and the reigns of his successors are wholly uninteresting before the thirteenth century. The preceding government 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 unfavorable 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 wealth they possessed, to support the indolent pomp of a few magnificent bishops; and the unfortunate situation of their internal affairs exposed them to the inroads and oppression of foreign enemies. 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 state 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 insulted and oppressed.

Magnus, crowned in 1276, seems to have been the first king of Sweden who pursued a regular system for the extension of 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 revenue of the crown was naturally followed by a proportional 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 due respect for the royal dignity, he, at the same time, by employing his authority in many points for the public good, reconciled his subjects to acts of power which under former monarchs they would have opposed with the utmost violence. The successors 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 Waldemar king of Denmark, and widow of Hacon king of Norway, reigned in both those 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 she was bold, artful, and ambitious. She obtained the crown of Sweden, by encouraging a revolt of the people from Albert of Mecklenburg. She projected the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were to remain under one sovereign, elected by each in its turn. Several revolutions ensued after her death; and at length Christian II. engaged in a scheme to render himself absolute. In order to establish his authority in Sweden, 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 descendant of the ancient kings of that country. A great price was set upon his head; but by his dexterity and address he eluded the most vigilant search, and escaped to the mountains of Dalecarlia. After undergoing innumerable dangers and fatigues, and working in the copper-mines to prevent being discovered, he at length engaged the savage but warlike inhabitants of that province to espouse his cause, and assist him against his tyrannical oppressor. Sweden, by his means, again acquired independence. Being at the head of a victorious army, he was created, at first, administrator, and afterward king of Sweden, by universal consent. His circumstances were much more favorable 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 the country; and the exercise of the Roman-catholic religion was prohibited in 1544, under the severest penalties. Instead of a Gothic aristocracy, the most turbulent of all governments, and, when poisoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the most wretched, Sweden, in this manner, became a regular monarchy. Some favorable 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, and was succeeded by his eldest son Eric. The new king's causeless jealousy of his brothers forced them to take arms; and, the senate siding with them, he was deposed in 1566. His brother 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, he was opposed by his brother Charles, and the scheme proved ineffectual.

On the death of John, Charles was chosen administrator of Sweden, in the name of his nephew Sigismund, who had been elected king of Poland. The exclusion of the latter prince favored the pretensions of Charles, who obtained the crown in 1599, but did not enjoy it in peace, being harassed both by the Polanders and the Danes. His successor, Gustavus Adolphus, found himself, soon after his accession, in an embarrassing and dangerous predicament. Through the power and intrigues of the Polanders, Russians, and Danes, he was 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, under the mediation of James I. of England, he concluded a treaty of peace, by which he recovered Livonia.

The ideas of Gustavus began now to expand. 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 implacable enemy, Sigismund, whom he defeated. In 1627, he formed the siege of Dantzic, 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 humbling the house of Austria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of wonderful success. After taking Riga, and overrunning Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious. In 1630 he landed in Pomerania, drove the enemy out of the duchy of Mecklenburg, defeated the famous count Tilly, the Austrian general, and over-ran Franconia. On 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 abilities of this prince never appeared so fully as after his death. He left a set of generals trained by himself, who maintained the glory of the Swedish arms with astonishing valor and success. The names of duke Bernard, Banier, 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 various schemes in view beside the mere relief of the protestants and the restoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor Oxenstiern was as able and politic as his master was brave and warlike; 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 only six years of age, at the death of her father. 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 gross and indelicate in the choice of her private favorites. 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 honor 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 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. All differences were accommodated at the same time with Russia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very respectable figure in the affairs of Europe. Charles received a subsidy from Louis XIV.; but, apprehending that the liberties of Europe were 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, when he had been defeated in Germany, 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: but Charles, by the treaty of St. Germain, recovered all he had lost, except some places in Germany. He then made a base use of the tranquillity which he had regained, by employing his army to enslave his people. The states lost all their power; and Sweden reduced to the condition of Denmark.

This prince died in 1697, and was succeeded by his minor son, the famous Charles XII. The will of the deceased king had fixed the son's majority at 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 Moscow, 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 then marched into Saxony, where his warlike achievements equaled, 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 success 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, in 1709, he lost, in the battle of Pultowa, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. But his misfortunes did not cure his military madness; and, after his return to his dominions, he prosecuted his revenge against Denmark, until he was killed at the siege of Fredericshall, in Norway, in 1718, when he was not more than thirty-six years of age. It has been supposed, with great probability, that he was shot by one of his officers, as it appears that the Swedes were weary of the government 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, Ulrica, wife to the hereditary prince of Hesse, whose first care was to make peace with Great-Britain, which the late king intended, to invade. The Swedes then, to prevent farther losses by the progress of the Russian; the Daniah, 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 disturbed the internal quiet of the kingdom, and led it into an unfortunate war with Russia. A contest at length arose for the succession to the crown; but it was amicably decided by the influence of the Russian empress, who, having procured the high appointment for the bishop of Lubeck, uncle to the presumptive heir of her crown, granted to the Swedes an honorable peace. The favored candidate, Adolphus Frederic, 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 III., who possessed abilities greatly superior to those of his father.

In consequence of the death of Adolphus, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to settle the form of the coronation-oath. The new king, after his return to Sweden from France, bound himself by oath to maintain the rights and liberties of the states, the freedom and security of all his subjects, and to reign with equity according to the laws of the kingdom. But scarcely had he taken these oaths, when he resolved to govern at his discretion. Concealing his arbitrary intentions, he practised all the arts of popularity; and, when he found that he had deluded the people into the most favorable opinion of his patriotism, he commenced the execution of his unjustifiable scheme. Having taken measures for bringing a considerable number of the officers and soldiers into his interest, he secured the absolute command of the whole military force of Stockholm, made all the members of the senate prisoners, and issued a proclamation for an assembly of the states. Seated on his throne, surrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having

addressed a speech to the states, he ordered a secretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the national representatives for their acceptance. As the place of meeting was encompassed by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them; and thus was a bloodless revolution completed, in which the Swedes surrendered the constitution bequeathed to them by their forefathers, after the death of Charles XII., as a bulwark against any despotic attempts of their future monarchs.

The exorbitant power which Gustavus had thus assumed, he exercised with some degree of moderation; and, at an assembly of the states in 1786, when many points had been 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.

Gustavus having been impelled into a war with Russia by the advice of the Porte, in 1788, hostilities commenced on the frontiers of Finland; but, after various engagements both by land and sea, a peace, fixing the frontiers of Russia as they were before the war broke out, was signed at Werela. The reign of this prince was terminated by a premature and tragic end. On the night of the 16th of March, 1792, while at a masquerade, he was shot by 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, in compliance with his father'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 Gustavus IV. was at first pacific; but, animated with a just indignation against the violence and ambitious encroachments of the ruler of France, he entered zealously into the war against that power; and, when the king of Prussia perfidiously took possession of Hanover, he bravely opposed him, and his troops occupied the district of Lauenburg; but, after the unfortunate result of the battle of Friedland, the French, being now enabled to act more vigorously against him, soon dispossessed the Swedes of Pomerania. Russia, likewise, then the abject instrument of France, declared against him, and invaded Finland in 1808, alleging, as a pretext, that he had connived at the recent seizure of the Danish fleet. The Swedes, under general Klingspor, behaved with great bravery, but were overpowered by the superior number of their enemies, who took Abo, and over-ran Finland. The king was equally unsuccessful in Norway; and the people, and even the army, began to be highly dissatisfied. To assist Gustavus in his difficulties, Great-Britain sent sir John Moore to the Baltic, with a force of about 14,000 men; but this army, after having remained in the transports for several weeks, returned to England, without even attempting any thing. When the king found that the troops declined all offensive hostilities, he was so disgusted, that he ordered the arrest of the general, who, not without some difficulty, effected his escape to the fleet.

As great discontent was occasioned by the ill success of the war, a conspiracy was formed against Gustavus by the nobles in 1809. The troops on the frontiers of Norway mutinied; and this was the signal for the disaffected at Stockholm. The king, being informed of the advance

of the insurgents, despatched a courier to the western army, with orders to remove baron Cederstrom from the command; but no effect resulted from this act of expiring authority. As his majesty was preparing to leave the palace, he was surrounded by major-general Adlercreutz and other officers, and quickly overpowered. Even the royal guard forbore to assist him; and every voice seemed to call for his dethronement, as he had plunged the country into serious danger, and did not possess sufficient sense or courage to stem the torrent. At the desire of the conspirators, the duke of Sudermania declared himself protector of the kingdom; and so unpopular was Gustavus, that the states not only deposed him, but declared his offspring incapable of reigning. A small pension being assigned to him, he was obliged to retire from Sweden:

The result of this revolution was the elevation of the duke to the throne under the appellation of Charles XIII. and the termination of the war with France and Russia. Finland was ceded to Alexander, who would not otherwise desist from hostilities. The new king, however, found it impracticable to preserve peace, amidst the clashing interests of other powers. He did not seriously regard the feeble and desultory hostilities of Denmark: but he dreaded the effects of Bonapartè's resentment, if he should refuse to declare war against his Britanic majesty. While he was deliberating on this point, he concurred with the diet (in 1810) in the appointment of the prince of Augustenburg to the future possession of that throne which his own want of issue would render vacant at his death. So popular was this prince among the Swedes, although he was a Danish subject at the time of his election, that his sudden death, which was occasioned by a fit of apoplexy, but which the multitude imputed to poison, led to the assassination of count Fersen, who was unjustly suspected of the murder of the crown-prince. As the choice of another heir of the crown was now thought necessary, the difficulty of determination kept the nation for some time in anxious suspense. At length, without any visible exercise of French influence, an extraordinary proposal was submitted to the consideration of the diet. It was the general wish that the object of election should be distinguished by military talents, as well as by political abilities; and, as Bernadotte, whom Bonapartè had created prince of Ponte-Corvo, had conducted himself with integrity and moderation during a command which he exercised in the north of Germany, he was proposed by his Swedish majesty as a candidate whose character was unexceptionable. The nobles, clergy, burgesses, and peasants, acquiesced in the nomination, and confirmed the choice. Thus, by a remarkable instance of revolutionary caprice, a foreign adventurer was permitted to supersede the high claims of the illustrious family of Vasa, and to erect a new dynasty in a kingdom with which he had no connexion.

War was now declared against the British nation; but neither the king nor the crown-prince intended that it should exhibit rancorous enmity or vigorous hostilities. This want of zeal disgusted Bonapartè, who, in revenge, ordered the seizure of Swedish ships, and the re-occupation of Pomerania. Listening to the voice of an insulted nation, Bernadotte thought it his duty, in his new character, to attend to the interest of Sweden; and he anxiously hoped that an opportunity might soon be offered for the formation of such a confederacy as might crush or humble the haughty dictator. By the aid of a British subsidy, he put a considerable force in motion; and, having received strong detachments from the Russian and Prussian armies, he made dispositions for the defence of the north of Germany. He rescued Berlin from danger by the battle of

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Gros-Beren; and, under his auspices, the French were still more seriously checked at Dennewitz. In the memorable success at Leipsic, he had also a respectable share; and his measures for bringing the Danes within the pale of the grand alliance were spirited and effective. When the confederates, in 1814, were marching to Paris, he stationed his army in the Netherlands, that he might be ready to meet any incidental storm of hostility; and, when he was blamed for his inactivity, his friends asserted that his presence in France was not requisite, and that he was still supporting the common cause, and promoting the general interest. Amidst the apparent tranquillity of France, he directed his attention to the aggrandisement of Sweden. The reluctance of the Norwegians to the transfer of their allegiance did not shake his firmness, or relax his ambitious zeal. He invaded their country, and enforced their submission.

When the escape of Bonaparté from Elba had occasioned a renewal of the war, the Swedes were bound to assist in the overthrow of the base usurper; but there was no necessity for their interference, as the skill and courage of the British and Prussian armies effected that momentous object. The crown-prince then distinguished himself by a zealous cultivation of the arts of peace; and, by his affability and courtesy, and his seeming regard for the welfare and happiness of the people, he acquired a high degree of popularity. In the mean time, the king, whose health had long been unsettled, visibly drooped; but he lived to complete the sixty-ninth year of his age. He died on the 5th of February, 1818. He had displayed his courage in the reign of his brother; but his talents did not strongly appear after his elevation to the throne; and his character suffered, in the opinion of many observers, from his readiness to supplant his nephew. The crown-prince ascended the throne without the least opposition from the Swedes.

Charles XIV. king of Sweden (formerly Jean Baptiste Julien Bernadotte) was born at Paris, on the 26th of January, 1763. When he adopted the Lutheran religion, in compliance with the requisition of his electors, he assumed the baptismal designation of Charles John. He was married in 1798 to Eugenia Bernardine; and has a son, Joseph Francis Oscar, now the crown-prince, who was born on the 4th of July, 1799. On the 3d of May, 1826, the crown-princess gratified the royal family by the birth of a son, named Charles Louis Eugene.

NORWAY.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1000	} between	{ 58 and 71 north latitude.
Breadth	150		{ 5 and 25 east longitude.

Containing 112,000 square miles, with more than 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 separated from Sweden by a long chain of mountains.

It is divided into the four governments of Aggerhuus or Christiania,

Christiansal. Bergen, and Drontheim; the last is subdivided into the two provinces of Norland and Finmark.

MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS.] Norway is one of the most mountainous countries in the world: continued mountains run through it from south to north; to pass one of which, called the Ardanger, a man must travel about sixty English miles, and, to pass others, above forty. 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 traveling 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 in these mountains are more wonderful, perhaps, than those which are found in any other part of the world, though less liable to observation. That which is called Dolsteen was in 1750 visited by two clergymen, who reported, that they proceeded in it until 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 would not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they consumed two candles in going and returning. In a mountain in Norway, called Torg Hallen, whose summit has fancifully been 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 numerous: the largest is the Mioss, about 60 miles in length, but of no great breadth except toward the centre, where it is from twelve to fifteen miles. It has in it an island about eight miles in circumference. The lake of Rands-Sion 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; which, though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees.

The principal rivers of Norway are the Glom and the Dramme. The former, from its source among the mountains on the borders of Sweden, to the bay of Swinesund, where it falls into the sea, runs about three hundred English miles; and the latter flows into the bay of Christiania.

METALS, MINERALS.] Gold has been found in Norway, and some ducats were coined from it in 1635. The silver mines of Konigsberg, about forty miles from Christiania, were long very productive, but they are now declining. The copper-mines of Roraas 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 at Fossam.

CLIMATE, SOIL, VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] The climate varies according to the latitude, and to the position with respect to the sea. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and the sea not frozen. The eastern parts 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 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, from the reflexion of the sun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithstanding, has been very kind to the Norwegians; for, in the midst of their darkness, the sky is so serene, and the moon and the *aurora borealis* so bright, that they work at their several trades in the open air.

The air in general is exceedingly pure, and many of the natives live to a very great age. The soil and climate, however, are certainly unfavorable to agriculture, and no parts of the country yield sufficient corn for interior consumption: yet, though it is deficient in arable land, it is rich in pasture.

The principal vegetable production of Norway is wood. The extensive forests of this country consist of fir, oak, elm, ash, yew, birch, beech, and alder trees. The fir in Norway is in high estimation, being firmer, more compact, and less liable to rot, than that of most other countries. Of the large sums received from foreign nations for timber, one-tenth is paid to the king of Sweden, 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. Among the wild animals are the elk, hare, rabbit, bear, wolf, lynx, fox, glutton, leming, ermine, marten, and beaver. The elk is a tall ash-colored animal, its shape partaking at once of the horse and the stag; it is harmless, and in the winter social. The hares are small, and are said to live upon mice in the winter, and to change their colour from brown to white. The bears are strong and sagacious. The 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 is smaller than a wolf, but as dangerous; it digs under ground, and often undermines sheep-folds, making dreadful havock. Its skin 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 to the shore, by dipping their tails into the water, of which the crab takes hold. The glutton 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 unhurt: 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 of royal magnificence.

The leming, or Norwegian mouse, is of a reddish hue, and about five inches in length. Vast multitudes of these animals sometimes proceed from the mountains toward the sea, devouring every production of the soil, and spreading desolation like the locust. When they have consumed every eatable, it is said that 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; it is of a black or dark-grey colour; with an eye resembling that of a pheasant. 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. 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 liberally 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 they follow 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 multitude 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 a 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: these, especially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and sold to great advantage. 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 in a moment, and dashed to pieces against the rocks; and, when the water becomes again still, rises in scattered fragments, scarcely to be known for the parts of the ship.

POPULATION.] Notwithstanding the great extent of Norway, 720,000 persons are supposed to form the whole number of its inhabitants. Of these, above two-thirds occupy the southern division.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS.] The Norwegians in general are strong and brave; friendly, 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 batters, 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 outrave 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 supposed too old for labor; 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.] Christiania is accounted the capital of Norway, because it is the seat of the supreme court of justice. It is pleasantly situated on the shore of a bay, about the distance of 25 miles from the sea, and is considered as the handsomest town in the country, but is neither substantially built, nor defensible against an enemy. It contains about 14,000 inhabitants, who appear to live in ease and comfort. Bergen, however, is the largest and most commercial town in Norway, containing nearly 21,000 inhabitants. It is principally built of wood, and has suffered by repeated fires. A great number of its inhabitants are Dutch and other foreigners.

Drontheim (or Tronjem) was formerly the capital of Norway. It has a fine cathedral (resembling the remains of that of Elgin in Scotland), a public library, a museum, and commodious structures belonging to various useful institutions. The population is supposed to amount to 11,500. The inhabitants are agreeable and friendly in their manners, if not so polished as those of Christiania. The affairs of the corporation are regulated by twelve persons, chosen from the body of traders.

COMMERCE.] The exports of Norway are timber, hemp, flax, tar, turpentine, fish, tallow, copper, iron, glass, alum, the hides of oxen and goats, and the skins of bears, lynxes, and foxes.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS.] When Norway became subject to the Danish crown, the general laws of the country were retained; and even the peasants were permitted to enjoy that civil freedom which was not allowed to the Danes: but the diets or national councils were discontinued, and political liberty was an empty name. The renunciation of all authority over them, in 1814, in consequence of the imperious demands of the enemies of Denmark, furnished the people with an opportunity of framing an independent constitution, in which they adopted the British model; and, on the transfer of the country to Sweden, Charles XIII. bound himself to the observance of the new code.

REVENUE, ARMY, NAVY.] Before the Swedes gained possession of Norway, its revenue did not amount to 300,000 pounds; and we may suppose that it does not now exceed that sum. The military establishment may be estimated at 25,000 men; but, as far as war is concerned, the navy is insignificant and contemptible, although the country has a mercantile fleet and resolute seamen.

RELIGION.] The religion of Norway, like that of Denmark, is Lutheranism. Christian sects are tolerated by law; but the Jews are not favored with that indulgence.

ACADEMICAL INSTITUTIONS, LITERATURE, LANGUAGE.] Christiania has an university; Bergen has a college; and, in the chief town

of each diocese, there is a Latin school. The language of Norway is the Danish, with a mixture of Swedish words: the gentry, and inhabitants of the principal towns, speak purer Danish than is usual even in Copenhagen.

[HISTORY.] The first inhabitants of Norway were probably tribes of the Finnish race, the ancestors of the modern Laplanders. These were conquered and driven out by the Goths. Norway, before the close of the ninth century, was divided into ten or twelve small states, under their several chiefs, which were then united into one nation by Harold Harfagre. From that time Norway remained a distinct and independent kingdom, except that twice in the tenth and eleventh centuries it was subjected, for a short time, to Denmark, and in the thirteenth united likewise, for a time, with Sweden. At length, by the marriage of Hacon king of Norway with Margaret of Denmark, and the succession of their son Olaf, in 1380, it became an appendage to the crown of Denmark. With that kingdom it remained for many centuries in a state of union: but the insignificance of the protecting realm, and the subserviency of the Danish court to the dictates of Bonaparté, concurring with the earnest wish of the enemies of France to attach the Swedes to the interest of the grand confederacy, led to an important change. Alexander, the Russian emperor, drew the court of Stockholm into the Anti-Gallican league, by promising to procure a cession of the whole Norwegian territory. After the successful campaign of the year 1813, the allies intimidated the king of Denmark into a resignation of all authority over Norway; and preparations were made for enforcing the submission of the people, who were known to be unfriendly to the unjust and humiliating transfer. In the hope of warding off the storm, the Norwegians offered the sovereignty of their country to the Danish prince Christian, who, without reflecting on the improbability of success, undertook the task of governing and defending the menaced kingdom. Under his auspices, a new constitution was framed; and he began to reign with the general assent of a nation which deserved to be free. But, when a Swedish army had passed the frontiers, and when the chief ports were blockaded by British ships, the new king, after risking some partial conflicts, relinquished all opposition to the will of the confederates. The diet of Norway assembled; and the majority of the members, yielding to necessity, transferred the crown, in November 1814, to the king of Sweden, who bound himself to an acceptance of the most material articles of the new constitution. Discontent still prevailed among the people; but they were obliged to acknowledge the sovereignty of that prince whom they deemed an usurper; and it does not appear that they have had reason to complain of misgovernment or oppression.

LAPLAND.

THOUGH Lapland has no peculiar government as a distinct nation, but is divided between Sweden and Russia, the peculiar character and manners of its inhabitants entitle it to 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 *Lappe* 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.] Lapland, taken in the aggregate, extends from 64 to 71 degrees of northern latitude, and from 15 to 40 degrees of eastern longitude, and contains about 120,000 square miles. Both the southern and northern parts appertain to Sweden. The eastern extremity belongs to Russia.

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 lakes in Lapland are numerous; the Great Lake, Tornea, Lulea, and Enara, 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 southern districts are mines worked by the Swedes. Limestone, marble, gypsum, rock-crystal, jasper, amethysts, and garnets, are also among the mineral productions of this country.

CLIMATE, SOIL, VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] The winter in Lapland is extremely severe. In the most northern parts the sun remains below the horizon from the 20th of November to the 10th of January; 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 a great depth. In summer, on the other hand, the sun continues in like manner two months above the horizon; and, in the valleys and plains, the heat is excessive. Innumerable insects are produced; and the inhabitants are infested with mosquitoes to an intolerable degree.

With respect to the soil and vegetable productions of Lapland, the whole country is an immense wilderness, where agriculture is rarely practised, 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; but Lapland more peculiarly claims the rein-deer. This very useful quadruped, which seems to have been provided by nature to recompense the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts of life, resembles the stag, except that it droops the head, and the horns project. 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 journey which they can perform without any other support. In a kind of sledge, shaped like a small boat, the traveler, well secured from cold, is laced down; having the reins, which are fastened to the horns of the deer, in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and snow. The deer, harnessed in a very simple manner, and fixed to the sledge, sets out, and continues the journey, with prodigious speed; and is so safe and tractable, that the driver has little trouble in directing him. At night these

animals 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 skins form 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, if one be killed in a flock, the survivors, it is said, 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 speed is scarcely credible; for they are said to run at the rate of 200 miles in a day. None but a Laplander could bear the uneasy posture in which he is placed, when he is confined in one of these carriages or pukhas; or would believe, that the rein-deer could learn, from a whisper, the place of his destination.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] Lapland is very thinly peopled. Russian Lapland scarcely contains 6000 persons, and 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 a half. The Laplander is of a swarthy and dark complexion; his hair is black and short, his mouth wide, and his cheeks are hollow, with a chin somewhat long and pointed. The women are complaisant, chaste, and industrious. It would not be readily supposed that their nerves are weak; but it is said that they are as ready to faint at the smallest shock of apprehension or surprise, as the most sensitive or delicate lady in a region of refined civilisation.

Agriculture is not much attended to among the Laplanders. They are chiefly divided into fishers and mountaineers. The former always make their habitations 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 with the fishers. Some of them possess six hundred or a thousand rein-deer, and have often money and plate beside. The fishers are also hunters, and choose their situation by its convenience for either purpose. 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. Beside 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, 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 women are employed in making nets for the fishery, in drying fish and meat, milking the rein-deer, making cheese, and tanning hides; but it is understood to be the business of the men to look after the kitchen.

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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 shut, 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 the blood, by putting it, either alone or mixed with wild berries, into the stomach of the animal from whom 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. Their common bread is made of barley and chaff; and sometimes they make cakes of the inner bark of the fir-tree, and of the root of the water-dragon. They are fond of the *angelica sylvestris*, and of the sow-thistle, which has a milky stem. 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 use no kind of linen. The men wear close breeches, reaching down to their shoes, which are made of untanned skin, pointed and turned up before; and in winter they put a little hay in them. A doublet is made to fit their shapes, 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 smoking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, leather, or cloth; the close coat, of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colors. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at the top, and the four seams adorned with

Lapland is 100 persons, is supposed are miles. than more as suckling and a half. air is black with a chin chaste, and nerves are smallest shock e lady in a ders. They mer always from which rt upon the more or less generally on and are rich hundred or a eside. The venience for and the in- ashed the use the fishery, ction of their make sledges, enalls, which with bones, r the fishery, ese, and fan- sea to look

list of a different color from that of the cap. The women wear breeches, shoes, doublets, and close coats, in the same manner as the men; but their girdles, at which they carry likewise the implements for smoking tobacco, are commonly embroidered with brass wire. Beside 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 colors.

A young man is not permitted to marry before he is 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 remaining in the open air. 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 the intended match. The brandy is handed round, not only to the girl's father and mother, and her assembled friends, 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 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 drunk 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 closely covered at other times, on this occasion her hair is left to flow loose upon her shoulders, and she wears a bandeau of variegated stuffs, and sometimes a fillet. Such of the guests as are invited, make the bride a present of money, rein-deer, or something toward a stock.

The Laplanders entertain a strong 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 from a frequent intercourse with the Danes and Swedes. The Lord's prayer, in this tongue, is as follows:

Atki mijam juco lee almensisne. Ailis ziaddai tu nam. Zweigu-batta tu ryki. Ziaddus tu willio naukuchte almesne nau ei edna man-nal. Wadde mijai udni mijan fert pafwen laibeem. Jah andagasloite

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RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

British Statute Miles.
0 50 100 200

Longitude East from 35 Greenwich

30 35 40 45

1872. New Scale of 1:1,000,000.

London Published May 1, 1872 by J. Neumann & the other Proprietors.



London Published May 1st 1852 by J. Maunton & the other Printers.

Longitude East from 35 Greenwich

mi jemijan suddoid naukuchte miije andagasloitebt kudi miije wel-gogas lien. Jah sisalaidi mijabni. Ele tocko kackzallebma pahast. Amen.

RELIGION.] The Laplanders have been induced by the persuasions of missionaries 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 (but not universally) 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 other characters, are drawn on the skin. The magician 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 mummery, 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 commences a journey, and which is his guide and director on all common occasions; but, in affairs of greater moment, he applies to the magicians. These drums are preserved with great care and secrecy, and are hidden except when they are used. Women dare not approach the place where a sacred drum is concealed.

TRADE.] The Laplanders carry on some trade with the Swedes and Norwegians, by supplying them with the skins and furs of quadrupeds; such as ermines, sables, squirrels, foxes, bears, lynxes, and wolves. In return they receive meal, cloth, various utensils, spirituous liquors, and tobacco. As the furs are of extreme fineness, and bear a high price, the balance of this trade is much in favor of the Laplanders.

RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1600	} between	{ 44 and 72, North latitude. 21 and 60, East longitude.
Breadth	1000		

Russia in Europe contains about 1,000,000 square miles, with 42 inhabitants to each.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE WHOLE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

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

NAME.] RUSSIA derives its name from the *Russi* or *Rossi*, a Slavonic tribe, the first known possessors of the country. It has been frequently denominated *Moscovy*, from *Moscow*, the ancient capital.

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.



London Published Map 1785 by J. Newman & the other Printers.

GOVERNMENTS.

Archangel
 Bratzlau
 Caucasia
 Courland
 Ekaterinoslav
 Irkutsk
 Kaluga
 Kasan
 Kharkof
 Kief
 Kolhyvane
 Kostroma
 Kurak
 Mohilef
 Minsk
 Moscow
 Nishnei Novgorod.....
 Novgorod
 Novgorod Sieversk.....
 Olonetz
 Orel
 Pensa
 Perm
 Petersburg
 Podolia
 Polotzk
 Pscove
 Revel
 Riazan
 Riga
 Saratof
 Simbirsk.....
 Slonim
 Smolensk
 Tambof
 Taurida
 Tobolsk
 Chernikof
 Tula
 Tver
 Ufa
 Viætka

CHIEF TOWNS.

Archangel { N. lat. 64. 34.
 E. lon. 38. 55.
 Bratzlau. ' '
 Astracan { N. lat. 46. 21.
 E. lon. 48. 2.
 Mittau { N. lat. 56. 40.
 E. lon. 23. 50.
 { N. lat. 46. 34.
 E. lon. 32. 30.
 { Kherson
 { Ekaterinoslav
 { Irkutsk { N. lat. 62. 1.
 E. long. 129. 43.
 { Ochotsk.
 Kaluga.
 Kasan.
 Kharkof.
 Kief.
 Tomsk.
 Kostroma.
 Kursk.
 Mohilef.
 Minsk.
 Moscow { N. lat. 55. 45.
 E. lon. 37. 46.
 Nishnei Novgorod.
 Novgorod.
 Novgorod Sieversk.
 Olonetz.
 Orel.
 Pensa.
 Perm.
 St. Petersburg. { N. lat. 59. 56.
 Kaminiék. { E. lon. 30. 19.
 Polotzk.
 Pscove.
 Revel.
 Riazan.
 Riga { N. lat. 56. 56.
 E. lon. 23. 58.
 Saratof.
 Simbirsk.
 Slonim.
 Smolensk.
 Tambof.
 Sympheropole.
 Tobolsk { N. lat. 58. 12.
 E. lon. 68. 25.
 Chernikof.
 Tula.
 Tver.
 Ufa.
 { Orenburg { N. lat. 51. 46.
 E. lon. 55. 5.
 Viætka.

OWNS:
 at. 64. 34.
 on. 38. 55.
 at. 46. 21.
 on. 48. 2.
 at. 56. 40.
 on. 23. 50.
 at. 46. 34.
 on. 32. 30.
 at. 62. 1.
 on. 129. 43.
 at. 55. 45.
 on. 37. 46.
 at. 59. 56.
 on. 30. 19.
 at. 56. 56.
 on. 23. 58.
 at. 58. 12.
 on. 68. 25.
 at. 51. 46.
 on. 55. 5.

GOVERNMENTS.

Vilna
 Vladimir
 Volhynia
 Vologda
 Voronetz
 Vorsnesensk
 Vyborg
 Yaroslaf

CHIEF TOWNS.

Vilna.
 Vladimir.
 Lucko:
 Vologda.
 Voronetz,
 Vorsnesensk.
 Vyborg.
 Yaroslaf.

To these territories may now be added the western part of Finland, ceded by the Swedish government in 1809; also a dependent kingdom formed in Poland, having Warsaw for its capital; and, on the side of Turkey, the province of Bessarabia, and the eastern part of Moldavia.

MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS, CANALS.] Russia is in general a level country; but between Petersburg and Moscow are the high grounds called the Valdai Mountains, though the highest is only 400 yards above the surface of 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 *Lemnoipojas*, the Girdle of the Earth. *Ural* also is a Tartarian word signifying a belt or girdle. These mountains are supposed to be the *Montes Hyperborei*, or *Riphei*, 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, 130 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 Bielozersk, or White Lake, so called because it has a bottom of white clay. The most considerable river is the Volga, running east and south, which, after winding a course of 1700 English miles, falls into the Caspian Sea. It is remarkable, that in all this 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. By means of this noble stream, 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 discharges itself into the sea of Asof, about 400 miles from its rise. The Borysthene, or Dnieper, which is likewise one of the largest rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Cosacks, and that of the Nagaish Tartars, and falls into the Euxine at Kinburn, near Oczakof: it has thirteen cataracts within a small distance. To these may be added the Duna, which empties itself at Riga into the Baltic; the Dwina, which has its source near the 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 Volkof to the Neva, extending the length of 67 miles, and communicating with the canal of Vishnei Voloshok. Another canal has been cut from Moscow to the river Don; and arrangements have been recently made for connecting this with the Volga. A new canal has also been planned to facilitate the commercial intercourse of Petersburg with Archangel.

METALS, MINERALS.] The principal mines of the Russian empire are in Siberia; but there are mines of copper and iron in the European part; and, in one of the mountains of Olonetz, a gold mine was discovered in 1739; but it yielded only 57 pounds of gold in the year. In one of the Uralian mountains, a mine was found about the year 1803; but so small a quantity of gold was produced out of a great mass of ore, that the hopes of wealth yielded to disappointment.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.] The severity of the climate, in Russia properly so called, is very great. At Petersburg, the cold, during the months of December, January, and February, is usually from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point. When a person walks out in that severe weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water, freezing, hangs in icicles on the eye-lashes. As the peasants usually wear their beards, icicles are frequently seen hanging to their chins like a lump of ice. 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. Boiling water thrown up into the air by an engine, so as to spread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A bottle of strong ale has 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. Notwithstanding this severity of cold, 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 the rigors of the season.

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, 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 that which has been recently killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Petersburg are thus supplied in winter with a variety of provisions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwise be possible; and it is not a little curious to see the vast piles of hogs, sheep, fish, and other animals, exposed 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 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.

The seasons, in that part of Russia which is beyond the fifty-fifth degree of latitude, can scarcely be said to be more than two, as the spring and autumn are very short and transient. That which is called the spring resembles the temperature of an English winter; and some portions of the summer, as in Sweden, are oppressively hot.

A diversity of soil necessarily results from the great extent of the empire. The most fertile land, perhaps, is that which is situated between the Don and the Volga. In other parts, likewise, ample supplies of corn might be procured, if the Russians would pay greater attention to agriculture than they have hitherto thought proper to bestow upon it. Yet it certainly is not so much neglected as some visitants of the country have pretended. In the middle and southern districts, it is carried on with some spirit; and the returns are abundant and valuable.

[VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS; ANIMALS.] Many extensive forests are found in Russia. Those in the north chiefly consist of pines: in other parts, the lime, elm, birch, alder, and maple, are more prevalent; and the oak, horn-beam, ash, and beech, also thrive with great luxuriance. Wheat, oats, barley, and rye, are cultivated with success: of rice in the south, and millet in almost every part, good crops are afforded: the hop and the tobacco-plant prosper in the southern districts; and, in the Crimea or Taurida, the culture of the vine has been prosecuted with advantage. Orchards abound in many parts; and, if they do not supply the nation with a sufficiency of fruit, it is because luxury requires a rich variety.

The animals of the northern parts of Russia do not greatly differ from those of Denmark and Sweden. 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. Hyenas, bears, foxes, weasels, and sables, afford their furs for clothing the inhabitants; and those of the black fox and ermine are more valuable in Russia than elsewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almost the only beasts of burthen known in many parts of Russia. Peter the Great encouraged a breed of large horses for war and carriages; but those employed in the ordinary purposes of life are small, as are the cows and sheep.

The birds in Russia are similar to those of Sweden and Norway. The same may be said of fishes, except that the Russians are better provided than their neighbours with sturgeon, cod, salmon, and beluga. Of the roe of the sturgeon and the beluga they make the famous caviare, so much esteemed for its richness and flavor.

[CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] In the former class the thirteen cataracts of the Dnieper may be enumerated, and also other cataracts in the government of Olonetz. The 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 square blocks of ice hewn in the manner of free-stone, 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 the front of the palace, beside 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. This curious structure remained entire for two months, and then began to melt away.

The great bell of Moscow, belonging to the cathedral of the Assumption of the Virgin Mary at Moscow, may be termed an artificial curiosity. It was cast in 1734, by the command of the empress Anne. It weighs 360,000 pounds: its height is nineteen feet, its circumference at the bottom twenty-one yards eleven inches, its greatest thickness twenty-three inches.

[POPULATION.] It is stated that, in 1722, all the Russian dominions contained only fourteen millions of inhabitants. In 1818, they had increased to forty-five millions and a half; and we have reason to believe that the present number is not under fifty millions; of which number, about eight millions may be assigned to the Asiatic division of the empire.

[NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Russians, properly so called, are in general a well-looking people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labor. 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 seems to be as necessary an article in the dress of a Russian lady as linen. Their eye-sight seems to be defective, in consequence probably of the snow, which for the greater part of the year is continually present to their eyes. The officers and soldiers always possessed a large share of passive valor, and, in several of the late wars, have shown themselves as active as any troops in Europe. They are implicitly submissive to discipline, endure extreme hardships with great patience, and can content themselves with wretched fare.

The nobles, in their mode of living, unite Asiatic pomp with an imitation of European refinement. They indulge in every luxury which opulence places within their reach, and domineer like sovereigns over large households. In the capital, thirty or forty resident slaves will content their pride; but, in the country, some have five or six hundred connected with their mansions, in imitation of the practice which prevailed among the Romans, many of whom employed slaves in every branch of art or manufacture. The emperor Alexander generously encouraged the emancipation of these degraded beings; and it is an increasing custom for the great *proprietors of men* to exact an annual rent from their vassals, and permit them to earn money by any kind of labor or business which they may prefer. Many of the nobles have released their slaves from all claims, and have thus entitled themselves to the highest respect and gratitude.

“The Russians, of the higher and middle classes (says Dr. Lyall) are insinuating and cunning, deceitful and perfidious, sensual and immoral, given to levity, fond of novelty, and improvident. With the command of little money, they are avaricious and mean; when cash abounds, they are generous, ostentatious, and prodigal. They are cheerful, good-humored, and social; luxurious, hospitable, and charitable; they love light occupations and amusements, but, above all, playing at cards. They have a great curiosity to pry into the affairs of others; they have quick apprehensions; their talents for imitation are universally allowed; they are fluent in languages; a few are endowed with good parts and ingenuity, and are men of literature; the generality are moderately well informed and accomplished, as to what regards the exterior of life,

while few are distinguished for their proficiency in the sciences. They are accustomed to good living, but are generally moderate in their cups. They are disposed to indolence, to a sedentary mode of life, and to much sleep; yet, when urged by affairs or necessity, they are exceedingly active, and withstand extraordinary hardships and fatigues."

The same author speaks unfavorably of the beauty and morals of the Russian ladies. He allows that their manners are easy and agreeable; but beautiful faces and elegant figures are, he says, rare among them, and they are not remarkable for chastity.

The higher clergy are respectable men; but the inferior ecclesiastics are, in general, ignorant and dissolute, and are treated with contempt by the gentry. The peasants are shrewd, lively, and active; fond of drinking, and pleased with the song and the dance.

Beside these amusements, which likewise belong to almost every nation, the use of the swing is a common diversion. The ice-hills also afford great amusement. A scaffold, about thirty feet high, is erected on some river; on one side of it are steps for ascending to the platform on the top; on the opposite side, a steep inclined plane descends to the river, supported by strong poles, and protected at the sides by a parapet of planks. Large square blocks of ice are laid upon the plane, and consolidated by water thrown over them. Each person, provided with a small sledge, mounts the steps, and glides with great rapidity down the plane, poising the sledge as he goes down. Summer-hills, in imitation of the ice-hills, are formed of a lofty scaffold with an inclined plane, protected by boughs, a narrow four-wheeled cart being used instead of the sledge.

There is one custom more general in Russia than in any other country: that is, the use of the warm bath. This practice is found to be healthful; and, although its frequency might be supposed to relax the frame, it does not appear to have that effect. In almost every village, this passion is indulged, being at once subservient to cleanliness and to luxury.

The mode of traveling in Russia is remarkable. In sledges of rude construction, drawn by small strong horses, long journeys are performed over the frozen snow with great ease and rapidity; and sometimes a kind of coach is placed on the sledge, in which the convenience of repose is mingled with the advantage of motion. Traveling is rendered less easy in the summer by the badness of the roads, which, in many parts, are formed of trees thrown across the earth, or ill-contrived wooden platforms.

The nobility, and almost all the people of quality, dress either in the French or 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, 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 rim, or a cap which forms a bag of a span in depth, in which they keep the handkerchief on the 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 also girt with a sash, from which the keys in ordinary use are suspended. The girls in general wear their hair uncovered more than the women: the former dispose it in three plaits, with ribands and beads tied to the points of them. In some provinces they wear a band across the forehead, decorated with pearls and beads of various colors; 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 adorned with pearls or glittering stones.

The nuptial ceremonies, among the Russians of the lower class, are sufficiently remarkable to arrest our attention. When a man wishes to provide himself with a female companion for life, he goes with a friend to the house in which a young woman resides who may suit his taste, and says to her mother, "Produce your merchandise; we have money to exchange for it." The girl is brought forward; and if, on a private examination, she should not appear to have any personal blemishes, and should at the same time be declared to possess a good disposition, she is acknowledged by the lover to be worthy of his affection; and preparations are made for the nuptial solemnity. On the day of marriage, the bride is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and, when the priest has performed his duty, his clerk throws a handful of hops upon her head, wishing that she may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led in formal parade into another apartment: and, after the consummation, an entertainment is given, at which a reputed magician attends, with a view of repelling every sinister attempt of other dealers in witchcraft to the prejudice of the new couple. The men who are present testify their joy by the obstreperous mirth of intoxication.

In great towns the obsequies of persons of rank are conducted in much the same manner as in other countries of Europe; but people of the lower class 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. When it is carried to the grave, which is done with many gesticulations of sorrow, the priest produces a ticket, signed by the bishop and another clergyman, as the passport of the deceased to heaven. This is put into the coffin, between the fingers of the corpse; after which the company return to the house, where they drown their sorrow in intoxication, which is renewed occasionally during forty days. Within that period a priest every day recites prayers over the grave of the deceased; for, though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, they imagine that their departed friend may be assisted by prayer in his long journey to the place of his destination after this life.

CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Petersburg is situated on the Neva, between the lake of Ladoga and the eastern extremity of the Gulf of Finland. In 1703, a few fishing-huts, on a spot so swampy, that the ground was formed into nine islands, marked the spot where now stands this celebrated capital, which 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 distinguished and admired cities of Europe. "It is (says Mr. James) a city of new-built palaces, where the residences of individuals vie with the effusions of imperial magnificence, and where the buildings, destined for public works, hold a rank of ostentation still more striking, and are of a magnitude well agreeing with the

mighty concerns of this vast empire." On the right bank of the river stands the old town, in which is still seen the cottage of Peter the Great; on the left is the new town, through which three canals pass, serving with their bridges and quays of granite to embellish the city, and affording a vent to the inundations which are occasioned by the temporary accumulation of the waters of the gulf. Here we may observe, that a dreadful inundation arose, in 1824, the effects of which are still felt.—From the admiralty, a spacious and magnificent edifice, three long and handsome streets branch out, intersected by others, in which the houses are of brick covered with stucco. Both the winter and summer palaces are admired for their architecture; and some of the churches are elegant structures. That which was completed in 1813, after the labor of fifteen years, may be considered as the most beautiful ecclesiastical edifice that Russia can exhibit in the modern style. It is called the cathedral of the holy virgin of Casan. Other ornaments of the city are the civil and military hospitals; and that of the dowager empress Mary may serve as a model for such establishments, whether we regard its exterior appearance or its internal arrangements. Another decorative object, but of a different species, is the colossal equestrian figure of Peter; it is the ingenious work of Falconet, a French artist, and stands upon a mass of granite, which was brought, by an extraordinary union of skill and labor (for it then weighed 1500 tons) from the province of Carelia to the capital. The immediate fortifications of the city are inconsiderable; but the fortress of Cronslot, at the distance of thirteen miles, and the strong town of Cronstadt, the principal station of the imperial navy, serve to defend the entrance of the Neva. Petersburg is supposed to contain 280,000 inhabitants, and Cronstadt above 60,000.

Moscow, formerly the capital of this great empire, stands on the river Moskwa. It was founded by the grand duke George in 1166. Before the French invasion of Russia, it was a large and magnificent city, and the Kremlin was a superb structure, or rather a motley mass of gaudy buildings, comprehending the imperial palace and chapel, the public offices, the cathedral and other churches, and the arsenal. The circumference of the town was about twelve miles; but the interior was not filled with houses or streets; for it contained so many spacious lawns, gardens, and groves, that it seemed rather to be a cultivated country than a city. Dreadful havoc was made on this spot, in 1812. To prevent the French from fixing their winter-quarters in a city which their presence profaned, the inhabitants set fire to many of the buildings, after the retreat of the major part of the population; and the flames, spreading with unrestrained fury, destroyed or ruined above two-thirds of the town. Speaking of this extraordinary occurrence, Karamsin says, "Eye-witnesses relate, that the carriage-market and the drug-market were set on fire by the hands of the shop-keepers themselves, and many other houses were fired by their owners;" and Rostopchin, who was governor at that time, says, "I can neither attribute the conflagration exclusively to the Russians nor to the enemy. Half of the population remaining at Moscow consisted of vagabonds, and it is probable that they occupied themselves in extending the fire, that they might have an opportunity of pillaging during the consequent confusion." The Kremlin, and the celebrated hospital for foundlings, were among the portions which were uninjured by the fire; but Bonaparté, with wanton malignity, ordered the former to be blown up by mines, yet only with partial effect. As soon as the enemy had retired, the task of repairing and rebuilding commenced; and, within two years, almost 3000 houses were recon-

structed or refitted. The work was continued with great spirit; and Moscow is again admired as one of the wonders of the world. It consists of five grand divisions. The first includes the Kremlin, where the cathedral of the Assumption of the Virgin Mary dazzles the eye with its splendid decorations, and the imperial palace, though more simple in its architecture, displays the most superb furniture of every description. The second division, though it is called the Kitai-gorod or Chinese-Town, is, in its aspect, the most European part of Moscow: it contains what is particularly called the Beautiful Place, one of the largest and finest squares in the world. The Beloi-gorod, or White-Town, exhibits many palaces of the nobles, the Foundling Hospital, the Exercise-House (a building of stupendous magnitude and remarkable construction,) and much better houses than this part of the city contained before the fire. The fourth division, styled the Earthen-Town, is handsome, but less splendid, and is surrounded by 35 suburbs, which form the fifth and least striking division. The noblemen's houses are not uniformly built; but the prevailing embellishments are central domes and ranges of columns, terraces, balconies, balustrades, statues, urns, vases, and reliefs.

Novgorod, the ancient seat of a Slavonian republic, and the subsequent residence of Ruric, is more remarkable for its former fame than for its present dignity or beauty. It has a large but insignificant fortress, a curious cathedral, and churches ornamented with gilt spires.

Kiow, or Kief, was also a seat of sovereignty; and it is still a place of no small importance. Its university, if not very flourishing, is not wholly neglected. Under one of its monasteries are catacombs, excavated from a massy rock, containing the revered remains of many of the primitive Christians of Russia. To this spot frequent pilgrimages are made by the superstition of the Russians, many of whom will even undertake a pedestrian journey of seven or eight hundred miles for the performance of acts of devotion at the shrines of their saints. The fortifications of Kief are in excellent repair; and its arsenal is a fine edifice, large enough to contain 100,000 stand of arms: but the town is ill-built, and most of the streets are unpaved, or boarded over. The population amounts to 23,000. This city belongs to Little Russia, (formerly the Ukraine,) in which division the finest town is Nejin, famous for its trade and for the splendid college founded by count Bezborodko.

Nishnei-Novgorod is said to have been at first intended by Peter the Great for a new capital of his dominions. However that might be, this town is now the seat of the greatest internal trade of the empire. Makarief, on the Volga, used to be one of the most frequented marts in the world; but, in 1818, the fair which enriched it was removed to Nishnei-Novgorod; so that the population of the latter town has been doubled within a few years. It has now about 23,000 residents; and, at the time of the fair, which lasts about two months, it swarms with traders, agents, and occasional visitants, drawn to the spot from every considerable country in Europe and Asia.

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. The buildings are principally of wood; but the exchange is of stone. Notwithstanding the decrease of the trade of Archangel since the building of Petersburg, it still exports a considerable quantity of merchandise, partly procured from Siberia, Tartary, and the frontiers of China.

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 Duna (2600 feet long and 40 broad) which, in winter, when the ice sets in, is removed, and in summer replaced.

Abo, which was long the capital of Swedish Finland, now flourishes under the Russian government. It carries on a considerable trade, both inland and foreign. Manufactures of linen, silk, cotton, ropes, glass, and paper, are conducted with skill and efficiency; and the population has increased in no small degree since the incorporation of the country with Russia. The university was rebuilt in a handsome style by the emperor Alexander: the hall is beautiful, and, among other embellishments, it boasts of statuary ornaments from the hand of a pupil of Sergel.

Kherson was founded in 1778, on the right bank of the Dnieper, as a convenient station for the trade of the Euxine; and, for many years, it seemed to flourish, having at one time 40,000 inhabitants and 130 vessels: but, after the death of its patron, prince Potemkin, and of its imperial foundress, it fell into decay. Catharine made a triumphal procession to this town in 1787, and was so elevated with the hope of making it a sort of *stepping-stone* to Constantinople, that she inscribed, over one of the gates, "Through this gate lies the road to Byzantium."

Odessa was founded by Catharine II. on the shore of the Euxine: but it could scarcely be called a town before the year 1803, when it became the rallying-point of those nations which had extorted from the Turks the liberty of navigating that sea. It is a handsome well-built town; contains a fine cathedral, a lyceum, a theatre, and other public edifices both useful and ornamental. The most numerous part of its population consists of Greeks: there are also many Jews; but the most opulent inhabitants are English, French, and Germans. Its commercial success has gradually elevated the number of its occupants to 30,000.

About 40 miles from Kherson is Nikolaef, which, though it did not exist before the year 1791, is now a very flourishing town. Almost all the houses are built of stone, and some of the public buildings are particularly grand. The docks are extensive, and furnish many ships of war for the Black Sea; the admiral of which keeps a sort of court in the town. The inhabitants nearly amount to 11,000.

Next to the government of Kherson is that of Taurida, including the Crimea, the former importance of which peninsula entitles it to a more extended notice than we should otherwise be induced to give. Bakchiserai was its ancient metropolis, but it is not at present in a flourishing state. It is a mean town, and the houses in general are contemptible; but the palace is a remarkable monument of Oriental magnificence. The present capital is Sympheropole, which consists of two parts,—the Tartarian division, and that which the Russians built after the conquest of the country. This town had been long declining; but it is now increasing in extent and population, though it is not supposed to contain above 3000 inhabitants. The Tartars are sober, temperate, and chaste; submissive to their priests and nobles; orderly and industrious, but not skilful in the mechanic arts, and still less acquainted with the sciences.

Caffa formerly flourished under the Genoese sway; but it is now in a low state of population, not being inhabited by more than 4000 persons. Many of its houses are unoccupied, and the town has a forlorn aspect.

The chief mart of the Crimea is Karassubazar. It carries on a considerable trade in horses and horned cattle, fruit and wine, leather, and

other articles. It has twenty mosques, and a few Christian churches; and about 5000 persons compose its population.

[MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] The Russian manufactures are numerous and important. Great quantities of linen are fabricated: cotton goods, both plain and printed, silken and woolen articles, cordage, sail-cloth, mats, leather, hats, gold lace, glass, porcelain, paper, and many other commodities, exercise the skill and industry of the Russians. All these articles, indeed, are not objects of exportation: but their exports are so valuable, in comparison with the imports, that the balance of trade is greatly in their favor. Beside many of the above-mentioned goods, Great-Britain receives iron, timber, hides, hemp, flax, pot-ash, hogs' bristles, tallow, and (from the Polish dependencies of Russia) large supplies of corn. With France and other continental regions, the Russians have also a flourishing trade.

[GOVERNMENT.] The sovereign of the Russian empire is absolute and despotic in the fullest extent of those terms, and master of the lives and property of all his subjects, who, though they may be of the highest rank, or may have been highly instrumental in promoting the welfare of the state, may, for the most trifling offence, be seized and sent to Siberia, or compelled to drudge for life upon the public works, and have all their goods confiscated.

The first officer of state is the grand chancellor: the other ministers are eight in number, being appointed for foreign affairs, finance, war, the marine, the interior, divine worship, public instruction, and the police. These, with thirty-five other statesmen, compose a supreme council; and another public body is the senate, which is the organ of the imperial decrees, and the highest court of justice. No authority is exercised by these assemblies without the consent or approbation of the sovereign, who fills every vacancy, and directs every measure.

[LAWS.] The system of civil law established in Russia was 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 Catharine II. made some attempts to reform and correct the laws. The courts of justice were in general very corrupt, and those by whom it was administered were extremely ignorant; but her judicious regulations fixed a certain salary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the clients, and placed the administration of the laws on a better basis. Even the slaves were no longer left at the mercy of their masters, who are liable to a prosecution for acts of outrage and cruelty.

The Russians have various punishments, which are both inflicted and endured with wonderful insensibility. Peter the Great used to suspend the robbers upon the Volga, and in 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, 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 the skin of a wild ass. This punishment has been so often fatal, that a surgeon generally attends the patient to declare when it ought to 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 sometimes recover, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred strokes moderately inflicted.

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 the cheeks and forehead marked, are sometimes sentenced for life to the public works at Cronstadt, Vishnei-Voloshok, and other places: but the common practice is to send them into Siberia, where they are employed in various labors. It has been said, that the prohibition of the torture does honor to Catharine II.; but she merely ordered that it should not be inflicted without express permission from the government. Its abolition was reserved for the humanity of her grandson Alexander.

REVENUE.] The revenue of this great empire 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, and other imposts. It nearly amounts, according to recent accounts, to twenty-five millions sterling. When this sum is considered relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared with 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 embellishment of the empire, and for the increase of the comforts of the people.

ARMY AND NAVY.] Before the sixteenth century, the troops of Russia bore a great resemblance to the militia of other countries. But, about the middle of that century, the czar John formed a few companies of infantry from the vassals of the boyars: they were called *streltzi*, or sharp-shooters, and were retained even in time of peace. Michael added to this force a regiment of cavalry; and Alexis considerably augmented the standing army of the state; but this department was greatly neglected by his successor, until Peter arose, who reformed both the military and civil establishments. In 1712 the army exceeded the amount of 105,500 men: in 1747, it reached the number of 162,750: in 1771, it bordered on 200,000; and, at the accession of Alexander, above 268,700 well-disciplined soldiers composed the regular force of the empire. A greater number were in arms at the time of the French invasion; but, after all the exertions of the sovereign and his ministers, it does not appear that the grand army which opposed the invaders exceeded 135,000. The Russian soldiers are distinguished by the most unyielding firmness; and the Cossacks, in particular, are remarkable for alertness and rapidity of movement. These brave and faithful subjects of the empire are descendants of those fierce tribes which formerly occupied the country between the Dnieper and the Volga. They retained their ancient privileges in the reign of Peter the Great; but they have since been more fully incorporated with the government. Furnished with fire-arms and long spears, they usually act as light cavalry, and rush upon the enemy with loud shouts: they are more fitted for desultory hostilities than for the steadiness of regular warfare.

With a view of having a numerous military force ready at the first call, colonies have been lately formed in various parts of the empire. The grand feature of this plan is the organisation of an immense army from among the peasants, who will thus combine the agricultural and military characters. The chief stations of these colonies have the appearance of garrisoned towns; and the scheme will tend to make the Russians more decidedly a military nation.

With regard to the Russian navy, we may observe, that it remains upon a considerable scale, but receives much less attention than the army. For many years the ships of the line amounted to sixty, beside a great number of frigates and galleys: but there is no necessity, at present, for the maintenance of so large a fleet.

ROYAL TITLE, NOBILITY, ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The sovereign of Russia is called the *Czar* or *Tzar*, a Slavonic word signifying king or sovereign. In his ukases or royal decrees, and other public acts, he assumes the title of *Autocrator*, that is, an independent and uncontrollable ruler.

The distinctions of rank form a considerable part of the Russian constitution. The ancient nobility of Russia were divided into knezes, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were sovereigns upon their own catates, 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 also instituted the order of St. Alexander Nefski; and, in compliment to the empress, that of St. Catharine. Those of St. George and Vladimir were established by Catharine II., the latter being intended for civil officers. Her unfortunate husband had previously founded the order of St. Anne of Holstein, out of respect for the memory of Anne, the daughter of Peter the Great.

RELIGION.] The established religion of Russia is that of the Greek church. 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. The Russian ecclesiastics 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, so that they live very abstemiously during a great part of the year. After the long fast of Lent, they hail the approach of Easter with a striking solemnity. At midnight all the churches are filled with devout Christians, each holding a lighted taper; all eyes are directed toward the sanctuary, from which issue the clergy of all ranks, preceded by splendid banners and crosses. Search is made for the body of our Lord; it is then declared that he has risen; the joy is unbounded; and, at the conclusion of the religious service, feasting is the order of the day.—The parochial priests have no fixed income, but have wooden houses and small portions of land, and receive contributions from their flocks. They are allowed, and even required, to marry; but the bishops are obliged to remain in celibacy.

Peter the Great showed his profound knowledge of government in nothing more than in the reformation of his church. He broke the dangerous powers of the patriarch and the great clergy, and declared himself the head of the church. After establishing this great political reformation, he left his clergy in full possession of all their idle ceremonies; nor did he cut off their beards: that impolitic attempt was reserved for Peter III., and greatly contributed to his catastrophe. Before his time, a great number of both sexes were shut up in convents: nor has it been thought prudent to abolish all those societies. The abuses of them, however, are in a great measure removed; for no male can become a monk before he has completed his thirtieth year, and no female a nun until she is fifty; and even then not without permission of their superiors.

LITERATURE.] The Russians could boast of an annalist, the venerable Nestor, as early as the year 1000; but they have not hitherto made a shining figure in the republic of letters: yet, in consequence of the great encouragement given by some of their sovereigns, in the institution of academies and other literary societies, sufficient proofs have appeared of the pregnancy of their intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited at their academical meetings have been favorably received all over Europe; especially those which relate to astronomy, the mathematics, and natural philosophy; and pleasing poets, dramatists, and miscellaneous writers, have arisen among them. Lomonosof and Sumorokof were the poets of the last century, and those of the present are Dereschaven, Kheraskof, and Zhukovski, Ismaelof, and Karamsin.

UNIVERSITIES AND SCHOOLS.] 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 were suffered to fall to decay. The empress Elizabeth erected an university in the same city, in 1755; Catharine II. rebuilt and reorganised it; but it was nearly destroyed in 1812. The present university is not so fine a building as the former, but it is under better regulations. Schools are attached to it, as in the university of Petersburg. The professors receive salaries from the crown; and, to a certain number of students, not only education is afforded *gratis*, but they are even clothed and boarded by the government. Schools also have been established over the wide extent of the empire, and many of these seminaries are organised on the plan of Dr. Bell or of Mr. Lancaster.

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 letters have a great resemblance in form to the Greek characters. The language is copious and expressive, and requires great pliancy in the organs of utterance. The Pater-noster in Russian is as follows—*Otshe nash, eje esi na nebesech; da svyatitsya imya tvoje; da priedet tzarstvye tvoje; da boodet volya tvoya, yako no nebese ee na zemle; chleb nash nasooshnte dajd nam dnes; ee ostaveenam dolje nasha yakoje, ee me ostavlyаем doljneekom nashim; ee ne vovede nas vo iskooshenie, no eezbave nas ot loocavago; yako tvoe est tzartsvo, ee seela, ee slava, vo vekee vekov. Amen.*

HISTORY.] The foundation of the Russian power may be traced to the year 862, when Ruric, a Danish or Norwegian adventurer, led a small body of warriors to Novgorod, and, subverting a republic which had long existed on that spot, assumed the dignity of a sovereign. Olga, his son's widow, having been initiated in the Christian faith at Constantinople, introduced that religion among the Russians; but they

did not generally embrace it before the reign of Vladimir, who died in the year 1015. The incursions and hostilities of the Tartars impaired the strength and checked the progress of the Russian state; and many of its grand dukes or princes (not excepting Alexander Nefski, who triumphed over the Danes) were vassals to the khan of the *golden horde*, or superior tribe. John Basilowitz, in 1477, shook off the degrading yoke; and his prosperous reign of forty years gave a new aspect to Russia.

His grandson, John II., subdued the kingdoms of Kasan and Astracan, 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. After his death, the succession was filled by a set of weak cruel princes; and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris assassinated Demetrius, the lawful heir, and usurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius; and, with the assistance of the Poles, and a considerable party (which every tyrant has against him) he expelled the usurper, and seized the crown. He was murdered in a tumult at Moscow; and another ambitious impostor was also assassinated.

These impositions 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, in 1613, it was rescued from the danger of conquest or ruin by the good sense of the nobles, impelled by their despair. Ladislaus, son of Sigismund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the Russians were so disgusted and enraged at the arrogance of their Polish oppressors, that they resolved to elect a native prince. Philaretus, archbishop of Rostoff, whose wife 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 Ladislaus. The nobles met in a body; and such was their veneration for Philaretus, that they elected his son Michael 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 Ladislaus 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 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 people.

Alexis succeeded his father Michael. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolensk, Kief, and the Ukraine, but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. He promoted agriculture, introduced arts and sciences, promulgated a code of laws, and greatly improved his army by establishing discipline. His successor, Theodore, a weak but benevolent prince, reigned seven years, and, dying in 1682, recommended to his nobles the elevation of his half-brother Peter to the throne, as he was strong both in body and mind, in preference to his imbecile brother John. The princess Sophia, by the aid of the Streltzi, (the janisaries of Russia) checked the efficacy of this recommendation, and, while she consented that Peter should share the chief authority with her brother John, arbitrarily governed in the names of both: but, when Peter had attained the age of seventeen years, he

formed, by his spirit and address, a strong party against the regent, and, sending her to a convent, assumed the administration. Galitzin, who was her favorite minister and general, now dreaded the vengeance of the young czar; but he had the good fortune to escape with his life. His great estate was confiscated, and the following curious sentence was pronounced as his punishment: "Thou art commanded by the most clement czar to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majesty, out of his extreme goodness, allows thee three-pence *per day* for thy subsistence." Thus was Peter left with no other competitor, in 1689, than the mild and easy John; on whose death, in 1696, the bold and ambitious youth reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his future security by the execution of 5000 Streltzi.

Peter, having been 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 favorite 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 military exercise, with a view of employing them in curbing the insolence of the Streltzi. Peter, after this, began his travels, as an attendant upon his own ambassadors. 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, except two feeble regiments, the whole body of the Streltzi. He rose gradually through every rank and service both by sea and land; and the 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 which he showed to Augustus king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honor. 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 that she possessed a soul formed to promote his views and execute his plans. He cast a comprehensive eye over all parts of his empire; and, while he attended to the improvement of the arts and sciences, and to the general civilisation of his people, he 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.

Peter was unfortunate in his eldest son, 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 short interval of sense, during which he desired that his father would come to see him; when he asked his pardon, and soon after died. According to other accounts, he was secretly put to death in prison. After this extraordinary and disgraceful transaction, in 1724, Peter ordered his wife to be crowned, with the same magnificent ceremonies as if she had been a Greek empress, and to be recognised as his successor; and she mounted the throne on the decease of her husband. She died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, and was succeeded by Peter II., a minor, son to the unfortunate victim of paternal vengeance. Many domestic revolutions happened in Russia during the short reign of this prince; but none more remarkable than the disgrace and exile of prince Menzikof, the favorite general in the two last reigns, considered as the richest subject in Europe. Peter II. died of the small-pox, in 1730.

Notwithstanding the despotism of Peter the Great and his wife, the Russian senate and nobility 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 elder 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 Peter's brother, though her elder sister, the duchess of Mecklenburg, was living. Her reign was very prosperous; and, though she accepted the throne under limitations, she broke them all, and asserted the prerogative of her ancestors. Upon her death in 1740, John, son of her niece the princess of Mecklenburg, was by her will entitled to the succession; and, in his name, Biron, duke of Courland, for some time governed: but the czar's mother superseded him, and assumed the administration. The sway of the new regent was unpopular; and, notwithstanding a prosperous war which she carried on with the Swedes, Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, formed such a party, that she was allowed to ascend the throne: and the princess of Mecklenburg, her husband, and son, were made prisoners.

The new empress abolished capital punishments, and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation, unknown before in Russia. 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 disfavor of Prussia, notwithstanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her success was such as portended the destruction of the Prussian power, which was, perhaps, saved only by her death.

Elizabeth was succeeded in 1762 by Peter duke of Holstein-Gottorp (a descendant of Peter the Great), who had married Catharine princess of Anhalt-Zerbst. This prince had conceived an enthusiastic admiration of the virtues of the Prussian monarch, to whom he gave peace, and whose principles and practices he seems to have adopted as the rules of his future reign. He might have surmounted the effects even of those peculiarities; but it appears that he aimed at a species of reform, which Peter the Great durst not attempt, and even proposed 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 throne by the same authority which had placed the crown upon his head. But all his schemes were prevented by a general conspiracy, 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. His wife, Catharine II., was proclaimed empress.

The new sovereign, dreading the rivalry of prince John, who was still in prison, contrived a scheme for his destruction, by collusively employing an officer in an attempt to rescue him, so as to furnish a pretence for putting him to death. This act of cruelty convinced her subjects of the spirit by which she was actuated, and of her full determination to retain the power which she had acquired.

After she had governed for some years with ability, she directed her attention to the affairs of Poland. Having supplied by her potent influence the vacancy of the throne, she fomented the dissensions between the catholics and protestants of that realm, and over-awed both parties by military terror. Her tyranny at length produced a civil war; and her encroachments roused the grand signor into arms. Her general, prince Galitzin, twice defeated the Turks near Choczim, in 1769, and gained possession of that strong town; and, in another campaign, Romanzof was equally successful; while the Russian fleet, aided by the skill and enterprising courage of some British officers, who set fire to the opposing squadron, obtained a signal victory in the channel of Scio.

During this war, the partition of Poland, in which the czarina had a great concern, took place;—a memorable transaction, which will be more fully noticed in the history of that country. In the progress of hostilities, the Russians generally had the advantage; but, in 1774, the empress, at the earnest desire of the king of Prussia, consented to a pacification, by which she obtained a freedom of trade in the Black Sea, a considerable sum of money, and a large portion of territory between the Bog and the Dnieper.

Peace seemed then to be indispensably necessary for the immediate preservation of the Turkish empire; but, within five years, a new war was on the point of breaking out, and was only prevented by a new treaty. Yet the great source of discord still remained. The pretended independence of the Crimea, stipulated by the treaty of 1774, afforded such an opening to Russia into the heart of the Turkish empire, and such opportunities of interference, that it was scarcely possible that any lasting tranquillity could subsist between the empires. A claim, made and insisted on by Russia, of establishing consuls in Moldavia, Wallachia, and Bessarabia, was exceedingly grievous to the Porte. After long disputes, the Turkish ministers gave up that point; but this concession produced only a short-lived effect. New troubles were continually breaking forth. The emperor of Germany having avowed his determination of supporting the claims of Russia as well as his own, all the parties prepared, with the utmost vigor, for the most determined hostility. The year 1783 accordingly exhibited the most formidable preparations for war on the northern and eastern borders of Europe. However, in the midst of all these menacing appearances, negotiations continued to be carried on at Constantinople; and peace was signed early in the following year. By this treaty Russia retained the full sovereignty of her new acquisitions, namely, the Crimea, the isle of Taman, and part of Cuban.

Satisfied for a time with these acquisitions, the empress devoted her chief attention to the arts of peace. But her close political connexion with the emperor Joseph alarmed the Turkish sultan, who, dreading an attack from those ambitious confederates, declared war, in 1787, against Russia. Catharine did not then wish for a sanguinary contest: but her favorite Potemkin held out a prospect of triumph, and urged her to vigorous operations. Choczim was again taken; Oczakof was stormed; and other advantages were obtained by her troops. Amidst these hostilities, she found herself involved in a new and unexpected war. The Swedes had the greatest cause of resentment against Russia for past injury and loss, at the same time that they had every thing to dread from the overgrown power and boundless ambition of the czarina. Gustavus III. was therefore induced to meditate a project of hostilities, which commenced in Finland. The principal action of the campaign was the naval battle off Hoogland. The engagement, which lasted five hours, was fought with skill and obstinacy on both sides; but the victory was undecided. On another occasion, the Swedes severely suffered; for two of their ships of the line blew up, and six were captured. This loss induced the king to listen to proposals of peace; but the war with the Turks still continued. Ismael was long besieged by prince Potemkin, who, impatient of delay, ordered Souvorof to assault the town. This peremptory order was executed with complete success; 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 was, that the defenders (whose bravery merited, and would have received from a generous foe, the highest honors) were massacred in cold blood by the merciless Russians, to the amount of 30,000 men.

Great-Britain and Prussia, after a long and expensive armed negotiation, at length assented to the demand of the empress, that Oczakof, and the territory between the Bog and the Niester, should in full sovereignty belong to Russia; that the latter river should for the future determine the frontiers of Russia and the Porte; and that the two powers might erect fortresses on its shores. A treaty was concluded, in 1792, upon this basis.

When the first coalition was formed against the French revolutionists, Gustavus was to have conducted an expedition; and Catharine, on this occasion, promised to assist the allies with twelve thousand men. She published a strong manifesto against the progress of the new principles of liberty; but, content with idle promises and nugatory declarations, she merely sent a squadron to join the British fleet, without any intentions of effective service. While she pretended to aim at the ruin of the anti-royal party in France, she beheld, with pleasure, the greatest powers of Europe wasting their strength and treasures; and, undisturbed by foreign interference, made a second partition of Poland. By her intrigues, she also annexed to the crown of Russia the fertile and populous country of Courland. But the acquisition of countries incapable of resistance was not sufficient to satisfy her ambition. She turned her arms against Persia; and her general, Valerian Zouboff, penetrated, at the head of a numerous army, into the province of Daghestan, and laid siege to Derbent. Having stormed a high tower which defended the place, he put all the garrison to the sword, and prepared to assault the city. The Persians, terrified at the barbarous fury of the Russians, sued for mercy; and the keys of the city were delivered up to Zouboff by the veteran commandant, who had surrendered the same

town to Peter the Great. In a battle which soon followed, the Persians were victorious; but they could not re-take the important city which they had lost.

The martial schemes of the empress, and her plans of ambition, were interrupted by her sudden death, on the 9th of November, 1796. With respect to her political character, she was undoubtedly a great sovereign. From the commencement of her reign she labored to increase the power and political consequence of her country. She encouraged learning and the arts, and made every exertion to extend the commerce of her subjects. She enacted 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, contributed still more to mitigate the rigor of despotism. In the execution, however, of her plans, for the aggrandisement of her empire, she appears to have acknowledged no right but power, no law but interest. The fate of prince Ivan cannot be obliterated from history: the blood spilled in the long-conceived scheme of 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; and the dissensions and civil wars industriously fomented in Poland for a period of thirty years, with the horrible massacre which attended its final subjugation, 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 more mild and pacific disposition than that of his mother. He ordered hostilities to cease with Persia; and a peace was soon after concluded. He set at liberty the unfortunate Kosciusko; behaved with liberality toward the deposed king of Poland; and reinstated many Polish emigrants and fugitives. In 1799, however, he assumed a military attitude, and took a very active part in the war against France. His troops, under the command of Souvorof, co-operating with the Austrians, drove the French almost entirely out of Italy. 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 army from Switzerland, and seemed to have become more hostile to England than he had been to France. He seized all the British ships in his ports, and confined the seamen: he entered into an alliance with France, and excited a confederacy of the maritime powers of the north against the naval interest of Great-Britain. His arbitrary spirit, and seeming derangement, alarmed some of his principal nobles; and, in March 1801, he was deprived both of his throne and life, being overpowered and strangled by a party of resolute mal-contented. His eldest son Alexander immediately ascended the throne.

The new emperor soon entered into a pacific accommodation with Great-Britain; and, at the same time, acted in conjunction with the first consul of France, in settling the indemnities allocated to the princes and states of the German empire. When the coalition was formed against France in 1805, he acceded to it, and prepared to bring an army into the field; but the surrender of the Austrian troops at Ulm, and the rapid advance of the French, involved him in the defeat and disgrace which befell his allies at Austerlitz, and dictated the peace of Presburg. He continued, however, hostile to the ambitious ruler of the French, and, when the rupture took place between France and Prussia, promised

assistance. But Prussia fell an easy victim to the vast power of France; and Russia fruitlessly continued the struggle, until, after the doubtful battle of Pultusk, the destructive conflict of Eylau, and the decisive victory at Friedland, the emperor found it necessary to submit, and concluded, in 1807, a treaty of peace and alliance at Tilsit. The seeming readiness with which he entered into the views of Bonaparté, reflected no credit on his character. He was duped by the artful insinuations of the tyrant, and readily consented, with a simultaneous view to his own interest, to promote the ambitious schemes of his new ally. In a previous instance, he had manifested a disregard to strict justice, in rushing into a war with the Turks, who had not attacked or provoked him. His troops over-ran those provinces which were nearest to his own dominions; but their progress was subsequently checked by the rising spirit of the Turks. This war continued above five years, but was less sanguinary than might have been expected; and it terminated with the addition of Bessarabia and a part of Moldavia to the Russian territories.

In the mean time, Alexander engaged in another war, from a desire of extending his dominions. He had long wished for the possession of Swedish Finland; and the opportunity seemed particularly favorable, as Gustavus IV. was neither a hero nor a statesman. Great-Britain, indeed, sent a respectable force to assist the endangered king; but the commander remained inactive, while the Russians overwhelmed all opposition. Sveaborg, which Gustavus fondly deemed impregnable, was quickly surrendered; and the enemy would probably have appeared at Stockholm in the next campaign, if the discontent of the Swedes had not produced that revolution which hurled the unfortunate king from his throne.

The emperor's good sense and judgement at length roused him from his mean subserviency. He was ashamed of having connived at the usurpation of the Spanish throne, and at the humiliation of his Austrian friend; and his pride was wounded at the arrogance with which he was treated by his ambitious ally. He put an end to the appearance of war which he had thought himself bound, after the ungenerous attack upon Copenhagen, to maintain with Great-Britain, and renewed his encouragement of that commercial intercourse from which his subjects had derived important advantages. He coolly disregarded the remonstrances of the haughty ruler of France, and resolved to act with an independent spirit.

Enraged at these symptoms of a secession from the alliance, Napoleon made extraordinary preparations for a northern expedition, that, by the conquest of Russia, he might become absolute master of the continent. Troops, to the amount of 400,000 men, were led in 1812 to the banks of the Niemen, while the Russians, rather from caution than timidity, retreated before the motley host of invaders. Either at Petersburg, or at the ancient capital, Bonaparté hoped to dictate his will in such a peremptory tone, that it should not be opposed or eluded. Detaching a part of his army to separate the chief Russian force from the modern metropolis, he advanced toward the Dnieper, and menaced Smolensk with an attack. The fortified suburbs were stormed; and, on the spot which was thus seized, batteries were hastily erected, from which a furious fire poured upon the city. With a view of diminishing the expected advantage of conquest, the citizens, inspired with an extraordinary effervescence of patriotic zeal, set fire to different parts of the town; and all who had an opportunity of escaping retired with the garrison.

After some partial conflicts, a general engagement near Borodino exhibited the courage and obstinacy of both parties. The left wing of the Russians, after a long contest with a superior force, began to yield; but, being supported by a fresh corps, rallied, and repelled the assailants. The other divisions also checked the impetuous advance of the foe: yet the advantage was so inconsiderable, that it could not properly be termed a victory; and still less could the French fairly claim that honor, though they boldly asserted their pretensions to it. This was one of the most sanguinary battles of modern times; for it is affirmed that 70,000 men (both sides included) covered the field, either dead or wounded.

Regardless of the loss which they had sustained, the invaders pressed forward to the banks of the Moskwa; and the van-guard profaned, by unhallowed intrusion, the sacred precincts of the Kremlin. Suddenly raging flames appeared in the heart of Moscow, confounding the presumptuous enemy, who had hoped to pass the winter in that city. The consequent havoc was dreadful; and a considerable loss of lives attended that destruction of buildings, which originated in the phrenetic desperation or the patriotic magnanimity of the inhabitants. Having checked the progress of the flames, the French lingered for some weeks in the town, while the Russians endeavoured to surround them. Kutusoff commanded the grand army: another assembled force had the gallant Wittgenstein for its general, and, in consequence of the conclusion of peace with the Turks (who had purchased it by an admission of the Russians to the Pruth and the Danube), a well-disciplined host returned to the northward to assist in the ruin of a malignant foe. When the French ventured to retreat, they were harassed in every mode; and the rigors of a northern winter thinned their numbers, and increased the misery of the survivors. Several conflicts, in which the French displayed their habitual courage sharpened by despair, marked the retreat. Their leader escaped, at a time when many thousands of his deluded followers and admirers perished in his sight. He treacherously ordered the bridges over the Beresina to be set on fire, after he had passed with his main body, and fled amidst the confusion which ensued. Traversing Lithuania with the utmost rapidity, he reached the Vistula, and found refuge at Warsaw: but he scarcely thought himself safe, even amidst a friendly population, from the fury of the Cosacks; whose chief, the brave and enterprising Platoff, had offered a liberal reward for the seizure of the base and inhuman fugitive.

The disgrace and ruin of the invading army, of which not more than a fifth part returned into Poland, revived the hopes and courage of the King of Prussia, who had been obliged to send an army even against his former friend. The remains of his auxiliary force now took an opportunity of seceding from their constrained alliance with the French; and the king entered into a new league with the northern potentate. These princes, however, had not a sufficient force embodied to defeat or to repel the French, whose leader again appeared in Germany with a powerful army. In two very sanguinary conflicts, they could not, with all their efforts, make the desired impression; but, when they were joined by the Austrians and the Swedes, and liberally subsidised by Great-Britain, they became so successful, as nearly to ruin the opposing army at Leipaic.

Alexander now flattered himself with a prospect of the speedy deliverance of Europe. Not only Napoleon's principal army rapidly retreated to the Rhine, but many of his garrisons relinquished the towns which they had long occupied; and the year 1814 commenced with an invasion of France. The allied troops, forming two great armies, instead

of losing time in the attack of fortresses, which, they foresaw, would yield on the total defeat of the French, advanced with the most determined alacrity, and, disregarding all the checks which they received, threatened even the capital with a vigorous assault. Each army, opposed in its turn by the exasperated and alarmed despot, still kept the grand object in view; and, when both had formed a junction, while Bouaparté was endeavouring to cut off their retreat, they reached the heights near Paris, stormed the positions, and enforced a surrender. Entering the city in triumph, Alexander, without seeming to interfere, dictated his will to the senate. Napoleon was dethroned, and the head of the house of Bourbon was invited to the sovereignty.

The escape of the deposed usurper from the island of Elba, which had been imprudently assigned to him as an independent principality, occasioned a renewal of the war. The troops of Alexander were not ready to act, when the French rushed into the Netherlands; but, if the British and Prussian armies had been defeated, instead of triumphing at Waterloo, the Russians and Austrians, boldly advancing in the sequel, would have turned the tide against the enemy.

In the congress of Vienna, the Russian potentate had the greatest influence. By him both the Austrian emperor and the king of Prussia were guided; and the three princes did not attend less to their own interest than to the general benefit of Europe. Alexander assumed the crown of Poland, and promised to grant, to the inhabitants of that country, such a constitution as would be adequate to their wants and wishes. After a protracted absence from his native country, which, however, remained perfectly free from commotion, he again gladdened his people with his presence; and his return was hailed by every class of his subjects, as the appearance of a beneficent being, who had sacrificed his own comfort and repose to the happiness of other nations.

Having thus contributed to the restoration of general tranquillity, Alexander made it his study, for the remaining years of his life, to secure that peace which had been with such difficulty obtained. He exercised his influence in the suppression of those revolutions which arose in Spain, Portugal, and Naples, and strongly supported that "holy alliance" which he had concluded with Austria and Prussia against democracy. The strength of his constitution seemed to promise him a long life; but, when he was employed in public duties near the sea of Azof, the climate made a rude attack upon his health, and he died on the 1st of December, 1825, in the 48th year of his age. It was supposed by some that he was assassinated; but there were not sufficient grounds for such a surmise. His death was sincerely lamented by his subjects; and the loss even of an unfaithful husband seems to have had a serious effect upon the feelings of his wife (formerly princess of Baden,) who died in the ensuing year.

Having an unfavorable opinion of the disposition of his brother Constantine, and of the ability of that prince for the task of government, Alexander, under the pretence of a degrading marriage with a lady of the Romish persuasion, who was not of princely or royal birth, had procured from the grand duke a resignation of his pretensions to the throne; and Nicolas, though younger by seventeen years than Constantine, was therefore proclaimed emperor, with the assent of the excluded prince. The cause of seniority was boldly espoused by a regiment of the guards; but the new czar acted with such vigor, that all resistance was quelled after a short though sanguinary conflict.

The emperor Nicolas was born on the 2nd of June, 1796. In July, 1817, he was married to Louisa, princess of Prussia, by whom he has

had four children, namely, Alexander, (born in 1818,) another son, and two daughters, Maria and Olga.

Brothers and sisters of the emperor :

Constantine, born May 8, 1779; married in 1796 to the princess of Saxe-Coburg, and (after a divorce from her) to Miss Grudzinski, a Polish lady, in 1820.

Helena, born December 24, 1784.

Maria, born February 15, 1786; married in 1816 to the prince of Orange.

Catharine, born May 21, 1788; who became duchess of Oldenburg, and queen of Wurtemberg, and died not long after her second marriage.

Anne, born January 18, 1795.

Michael, born February 8, 1798.

POLAND.

AS the greater part of Poland is now a dependency of the Russian empire, it will be proper to take notice of it in this place. Before the first partition, its length and breadth were estimated at 680 and 660 miles; and it was supposed to contain 214,440 square miles, which were reduced nearly in the proportion of one third by the arbitrary spoliation. Another iniquitous defalcation took place in 1793; and, in the following year, the country ceased to be a separate kingdom.

MOUNTAINS, FORESTS, RIVERS.] Poland in general is a level country: but, toward the south-west, it exhibits the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Hungary. It has some extensive forests, particularly in the interior and eastern parts; and its chief river is the Vistula, which takes a winding course through the western parts, and falls into the Baltic near Dantzic.

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, which, in 1815, were ceded to Austria, are the richest and most productive in Europe. Among the mineral products we may also reckon rock-crystal, talc, alum, salt-petre, and pit-coal. Various kinds of earth are also dug up, admirably adapted to the use of the potter.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] In the north of Poland, the air is cold, but temperate in the other parts. Where morasses and woods abound, however, it is not very salubrious. The soil, more particularly in Galitzia, is fertile in corn, hemp, and flax; and the lands appropriated to pasture, especially in Podolia, are luxuriant and rich. Honey and wax are obtained in great abundance. Manna 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. The oak, the beech, and the pine, thrive in the woods.

ANIMALS.] The forests in the northern parts of Galitzia, and those of Warsovia, contain great numbers of buffaloes, whose flesh is deemed excellent. Wolves, boars, gluttons, lynxes, elks, and deer, are common in the woods: there are also wild horses and asses, and wild oxen. A kind of wolf, resembling a hart, with spots on its belly and legs, is found here, and affords the best fur in the country. The elk is common in the

northern parts; and its flesh forms the most delicious part of the greatest feasts. Its body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs are high, the feet broad. Naturalists have observed, that, upon dissecting an elk, there are frequently found in the head some large flies, and the brain almost eaten away; and it is an observation sufficiently attested, that, in the large woods and wilds of the north, this poor animal is attacked, toward the winter chiefly, by a larger sort of flies, which, 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. These animals dig holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occasionally for food, until 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 are found eagles and vultures. A species of titmouse is frequently found in these parts, remarkable for the structure of its pendent nest, formed in the shape of a long purse with amazing art.

[NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The salt-mines of *Wieliczka* consist of wonderful caverns, several hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many labyrinths. Out of these are dug four species of salt; one extremely hard, like crystal; another softer, and clearer; a third white, but brittle; these are all brackish, but the fourth is less saline to the taste. These four kinds are dug in different mines, near *Cracow*; on one side of them is a stream of salt water, and on the other one of fresh. Into these mines the descent is usually made by means of a thick cable, to which the person is fastened by slings and buckles. Dr. Neale says, that, when he had been thus let down, he found himself at the entrance of a chapel, excavated out of the salt rock, containing altars, columns, and statues. When he had descended by winding passages from one chamber to another, to the depth of 900 feet, his progress was impeded by a large lake, formed by the springs that issue from the sides of the mine. "These springs (he says) dissolve large quantities of salt in their passage, and, when at rest, deposit it in beautiful cubical crystallisations at the bottom of the lake, from which they are raked up by instruments with long iron prongs." The mines are not likely to be soon exhausted; for, below the above-mentioned level, the workmen "have ascertained the existence of immense *strata* of salt, extending from east to west to an unknown distance." Before they reach the fossil salt, the following *strata* are observed;—first, loose vegetable mould; secondly, argillaceous earth or marl; thirdly, fine sand mixed with water; and, in the next place, black and very compact clay.

With regard to the subject of fossil salt, some philosophers have thought that the sea has derived its saline taste from masses of salt which its waters have dissolved; but others are of opinion, that it produces salt, which it deposits on the recession and evaporation of the water—an effect which is attributed to volcanic agency.

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 live to a very great age. This spring is inflammable; and, by applying a torch to it, it flames like the most subtile spirit of wine. The flame, however, dances on the surface without heating the water; and, if it be not extin-

guished, it communicates itself, by subterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees in a neighbouring wood, which it consumes.

POPULATION, NATIONAL CHARACTER, } The population of Poland,
MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } before its first dismemberment, was estimated at 13,404,000: it is now believed to be above fifteen millions. The Polanders, in their persons, are tall and well-proportioned: they have good features and fair complexions. The gentry are brave, frank, and hospitable; and the women are sprightly and agreeable in their manners: but both sexes are loose and licentious in their morals. The prevalent diversions are warlike and manly; vaulting, dancing, riding, hunting, bull and bear-baiting. The principal nobles live in great state. When they sit down to dinner or supper, they have trumpets and other instruments 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 the rich: but their patron usually treats them with civility, and permits the eldest to eat with him at his table, with his cap off.

Though Poland had its princes, counts, and barons, the whole body of the nobility were naturally on a level, except the difference that arose from the public employments which any of them held. They did not value titles of honor, but thought a *gentleman of Poland* the highest appellation they could enjoy. They had many considerable privileges; and, indeed, the boasted Polish liberty was limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from immemorial prescription. Over the peasants they wantonly exercised a high and commanding authority.

Casimir the Great endeavoured, by various ordinances, to rescue the peasants from the brutality of their masters, and to meliorate their condition; but his regulations proved ineffectual against the power of the nobles, and were either abrogated or eluded. Some of these lordly oppressors had estates from five to twenty leagues in extent, and were also hereditary sovereigns of cities, with which the king had no concern. One of the nobles sometimes possessed above 3000 towns and villages. Some of them could raise 8 or 10,000 men. The house of a nobleman was a constant asylum for persons who had committed any crime; for none might presume to take them from it by force. They had their horse and foot guards, which were upon duty day and night before their palaces, and in their anti-chambers, and marched before them when they went abroad. They made an extraordinary figure when they attended the diet, some of them having 5000 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 was left to the longest sword; for the justice of the kingdom was commonly too weak for the grandees.

The peasants were at the absolute disposal of their masters. They were indispensably obliged to cultivate the earth; they were incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might lead them to freedom, without the permission of their lords; and they were exposed to the dismal and frequently fatal effects of caprice and cruelty. In modern times, indeed, a few nobles of enlightened understandings ventured to give liberty to their vassals; and, as they soon found the good effects of their generosity, or their regard to justice, in the increase of population and revenue, the example has been followed by others. The lives of the

peasants have been declared as sacred as those of other men ; and they are allowed to acquire and to possess property.

The Polish dress is remarkable. The men shave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown ; and they generally wear large whiskers. A vest which reaches down to the middle of the leg ; a gown lined with fur, and girded with a sash ; wide breeches, making one piece with their stockings ; compose the usual dress of the gentry. They wear fur caps or bonnets ; their shirts are without a collar or wristbands, and they wear neither a stock nor a neckcloth. Instead of shoes, they wear boots, with thin soles, and deep iron heels bent like a half-moon. When they appear on horseback, they wear over all a short cloak, which is commonly covered and lined with fur. The women do not dress very differently from the men. As to the peasants, in winter they wear the skin of a sheep with the wool inwards, and in summer a thick coarse cloth ; but linen is worn by few. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the soles of their feet.

In a survey of the Polish community, the Jews are entitled to particular notice. In former times, when they were persecuted by other nations, they were treated in Poland with marks of high regard ; and, except the nobles, they are still the most consequential and prominent figures in the population. "The enjoyment of liberty and of civil rights (says Dr. Neale) seems to have produced a strong effect on the physical constitution and physiognomy of this singular race, bestowing a dignity and energy of character upon them, which we may in vain look for in those of other countries." They are the principal traders, the chief distillers of those spirituous compounds with which the common people intoxicate themselves, and almost the only innkeepers in Poland. Like their brethren in other countries, they live (if we except the very opulent families) without regard to cleanliness, as indeed do the Poles in general. The inns are wretched buildings ; and some of them consist only of a long room, which serves for a stable, parlor, kitchen, and bed-chamber. Though the habitations of the Jews are better than those of the peasants, they are far from being commodious or comfortable. The latter are their own builders ; and their thatched log-huts scarcely shield them from the occasional inclemency of the weather.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Warsaw is situated near the Vistula, partly on a plain, and partly on a gentle ascent. It contains some magnificent palaces and other handsome buildings, with about 70,000 inhabitants ; but the streets, though spacious, are ill-paved, and the majority of the houses are mean wooden hovels. It is still capable of resisting an enemy by its fortifications ; and it has again become the seat of government, being the residence of the Russian viceroy, and the place of meeting for the national representatives of Poland.

Cracow, the ancient capital of Poland, occupies a large space, but is not so well filled with houses or inhabitants as to be deemed a populous town. Its steeples, high walls, and antique towers, strike the eye at a distance ; and some of the streets are wide and handsome ; but the citadel and many of the houses are on the verge of ruin. In the time of its splendor, it contained 80,000 inhabitants ; but the existing number scarcely exceeds a fourth part of that calculation.

Lemberg, the capital of Galitzia, exhibits a fine cathedral and other handsome churches, and contains many lofty houses built of free-stone : but all parts do not correspond with this imposing aspect ; for the greater part of the city consists of ill-built houses, whose inhabitants grovel in dirt and squalor. This want of cleanliness is rather the effect of habit

than of absolute poverty; for the town enjoys a flourishing trade, being the temporary depository of Russian exports from Odessa, which are forwarded by its merchants to all parts of the Austrian dominions.

Dantzic is still the most flourishing commercial town in the Baltic. For some centuries it was an independent city, nominally under the protection of the Polish government: but, in 1793, the king of Prussia, after a series of encroachments, took complete possession of it; and, in 1815, it was ceded to that crown by the congress of Vienna. It is a place of considerable strength; for, soon after the peace, it received the additional labors of the engineer. Lace, cloth, and stuffs, are here manufactured; and the products of Poland are largely exported. The population was formerly higher than the present amount, which is not supposed to exceed 45,000 persons.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] The manufactures of Poland are not very considerable, and are confined to articles of immediate necessity: they are, however, increasing and improving. Salt is the most important article of the exports, which also consist of corn, tobacco, cattle, wool, skins, tallow, bristles, honey, and wax.

GOVERNMENT.] The old constitution of Poland differed little from aristocracy; hence it was called a kingdom and commonwealth. The king was head of the republic, and was chosen by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warsaw. They elected him on horseback; and, in the case of 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 nomination, 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 once in two years, that every nobleman or gentleman in the realm should have a vote in the diet of election, and that, if 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 merely 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 diet consisted of the king, senators, and deputies from provinces and towns. The business of this assembly was, in general, previously discussed in dietines, or provincial diets, in consequence of a reference of various points of supposed importance from the king and the permanent council. But, though affairs were thus prejudged, their final success was not ensured; for the deliberations of the diet might be rendered fruitless by one dissenting voice—an absurd custom, which frequently crushed *in embryo* the most promising schemes.

After the nominal revival of the kingdom in 1815, a new constitution was framed for it by Alexander, who graciously condescended to limit his own authority, and to grant legislative powers, and the privilege of self-taxation, to a senate and a body of representatives. Undoubtedly, the despotic power which he claimed over the rest of his empire enabled him to acquire that commanding influence which rendered freedom in Poland an empty name; but his benignity of character precluded the exercise of glaring oppression.

RELIGION.] The established religion of this country is the Roman-catholic: and the people of all ranks are prone to superstition. The monasteries are very numerous; and the superior clergy are well provided with the luxuries of life. The primate is the archbishop of Gnesna. Bigotry long obstructed the full toleration of sectaries: but they are now permitted to enjoy the free exercise of their respective systems and modes of worship.

LITERATURE.] Though Copernicus, the great restorer of the true astronomical system, Voistius, and some other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet learning has never flourished in that country. Latin is spoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in some parts; but the contempt which the nobility, who placed their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, showed for learning, the protracted servitude of the lower people, and the general prevalence of superstition, retarded for ages the progress of literature among the Poles. Elegant historians and pleasing poets, however, have occasionally appeared among them; and a taste for science has lately diffused itself among the nobles, and it is now regarded as an accomplishment.

UNIVERSITIES.] The university of Cracow was founded in 1364. It consists of eleven colleges, and has the superintendance of 14 grammar-schools dispersed through the city. The other universities in Poland are those of Wilna and Posen.

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; and a specimen of it is given in the following translation of the Lord's Prayer:

Oycze nasz ktory na niebiesiach iestes; niech sie swieci imie twoje; niech przyjdzie ono krolestwo twoje, niech sie stamie ona wola twoja iako u niebie tak y na ziemi. Chleba naszego onego powssedniego daj nam dzisia, y odpuse nam nasze winy, iako y my od puszczamy 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.] The ancient history of Poland is very obscure. Before the ruin of the western empire, the country seems to have been chiefly occupied by the Sarmatians. In 830, Piast enjoyed the supreme authority under the title of duke; and, about the close of the tenth century, Christianity was introduced among the people by Miecslaus, whose son Boleslaus encouraged the progress of that religion, and at the same time distinguished himself by his military spirit and ability. He assumed the royal title, and left his dominions, greatly extended, to his son, whose successor Casimir was a respectable and patriotic prince. In 1059, Boleslaus II. added Red Russia to Poland by the marriage of its heiress. Casimir II. was a just and beneficent prince; and the third king of that name was the first who gave written laws to Poland. Jagellon, who in 1384 mounted the throne, was grand-duke of Lithuania. He united his hereditary dominions to those of Poland; which gave such influence to his posterity over the hearts of the people, 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 honors and privileges which were before confined to the catholics. He gave such evident marks of favor to the protestant confession, that he was suspected of being inclined to change his religion. At this time two powerful

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competitors appeared for the crown: these were Henry duke of Anjou, and Maximilian of Austria. The French interest prevailed, in consequence of the arts of corruption; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when he was called to France to receive a more important crown. The partisans of Maximilian endeavoured to revive his pretensions; but the majority of the Polanders 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 military affairs, by establishing a new militia, composed of Cosacks, whom he settled in the Ukraine. On his death, in 1586, Sigismund, a Swedish prince, related to the royal family of Poland, was chosen king. By thus indulging his ambition and his catholic zeal, he lost the crown of Sweden. He strenuously endeavoured to recover that dignity, and also to acquire the sovereignty of Russia: but, after long wars, he was defeated in both views. He died in 1632, and was succeeded by Ladislaus VII., who obtained some advantages over the Turks, Russians, and Swedes, but injured his reputation by provoking the Cosacks to a revolt, which they maintained against all his efforts. John Casimir, being also unfortunate in his war with the insurgent tribes, granted such terms of peace as the nobles deemed dishonorable. Eager to profit by the general discontent, the Russians invaded the country, and the Swedes under Charles X. followed the example. The latter nearly subdued the whole kingdom: but the resistance of Dantzic gave the Polanders time to recover from their consternation. John was assisted against his enemies by the active courage of the Tartars: the dispersed parties of Swedes were attacked with indignation and success; and the Lithuanians disavowed the allegiance which they had been forced to yield to Charles, who returned to Sweden with the wreck 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 the Swedes. After the restoration of peace, discontent still pervaded the realm. Some imputed to the king a want of capacity; others accused him of an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Casimir, who probably had no such intentions, and was fond of retirement and study, finding that cabale and factions increased, and dreading that he might fall a sacrifice to the public disgust, abdicated his throne, and became abbot of St. Germain in France, employing the remainder of his days in Latin poetical compositions, which are far from being despicable.

Many foreign candidates now presented themselves for the crown; but the Polanders chose for their king a private gentleman, of little interest and less capacity, one Michael Wiesnowiski, because he descended from Piast. His reign was disgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of Cosacks had put themselves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered Podolia, ravaged the greatest part of Poland, and compelled the people to pay an annual tribute to the sultan. The honor of Poland, however, was retrieved by John Sobieski, the crown-general. 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. In 1683, though he had not been well treated by the house of Austria, he was so public-spirited as to enter into the league for the defence of Christendom; and acquired immortal honor, by obliging the Turks to raise the siege of

Vienna, and making a terrible slaughter of the enemy. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

After the death of Sobieski, Poland fell into great distractions. Many confederacies were formed; and the crown was in a manner put up to sale. The prince of Conti, of the blood-royal of France, offered the highest terms: but, while he thought the election almost sure, he was disappointed by the intrigues of the queen-dowager, in favor of her younger son, prince Alexander Sobieski. Suddenly Augustus, elector of Saxony, appeared as a candidate; and after an irregular election, being proclaimed by the bishop of Cujavia, he took possession of Cracow with a Saxon army, and 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 afterward obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe seemed to acquiesce in the election of Augustus. For entering into the confederacy against Charles XII. of Sweden, the king was driven from his throne, and Stanislaus Leczinski received the crown from the hands of a victorious invader: but, when the Russians triumphed over the Swedes, the Saxon claimant recovered his throne, which, however, he held upon precarious terms. The natives were attached to Stanislaus, and frequently formed conspiracies against Augustus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. He died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733. A war then arose, 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 II., 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, as the Saxon ally of Russia and Austria, and Frederic III., king of Prussia, will be more regularly noticed. It is sufficient to say, that though he was a mild and moderate prince, and did every thing to satisfy the Poles, he could never gain their affection; and they gave him little more than a place of refuge, when the king of Prussia drove him from his capital and electorate. He died at Dresden in 1763; and count Poniatowski was chosen king, by the name of Stanislaus Augustus. He was a man of talent 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 an equal footing with the Roman-catholic subjects of the kingdom. The king gave no answer to this petition; but, when it was referred to the diet, the ministers of the courts of Petersburg, London, Berlin, and Copenhagen, supported their pretensions. The diet received the complaints of the dissidents with moderation, as to the free exercise of their worship; which gave some flattering expectations that the dispute would be happily terminated. But the intrigues of the king of Prussia appear to have prevented this: for, though he openly professed himself 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, at the same time, gave great disgust to all parties in the kingdom. The whole

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great distractions. In a manner put up for sale, offered the most sure, he was in favor of her Augustus, elector of Saxony, after an irregular election, and possession of Cracow in 1697. The king to re-establish his power; but he was driven into Prussia by the king was driven from the crown from the Saxons triumphed over, which, however, were attached to Augustus, who his Saxon guards in 1733. A war then great of his father the throne by a king of Saxons and hence he escaped Germany, the war and Austria, and was noticed. It is a moderate prince, and never gain their refuge, when elector. He chosen king, by of talent and ad- the unhappiness on and calamity. name of all the ers of the Greek they demanded to and to be placed is of the kingdom. it was referred to London, Berlin, diet received the free exercise of that the dispute the king of Prussia professed himself as manifest, from of his own am- of Poland, at the lom. The whole

nation ran into confederacies formed in various 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. Confusion, devastation, and civil war, continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771; and, in addition to those evils, in 1770, a pestilence arose, which spread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhynia, and the Ukraine. Meanwhile some of the Polish confederates prevailed upon 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 signor, toward the distressed Polanders, was just and honorable, and the very reverse of that of their Christian, catholic, and apostolic neighbours.

The king of Prussia, the queen of Hungary, and empress of Russia, now entered into an alliance to divide and dismember the kingdom of Poland. These powers, acting in concert, set up their formal pretensions to the respective portions which they had allotted for each other. They claimed Polish or Western Prussia, and some districts bordering upon Brandenburg, for the king of Prussia; almost all the south-eastern parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, with the rich salt-works of the crown, for the queen of Hungary and Bohemia; and a considerable part of Lithuania for the czarina. But though each of these powers pretended to have a legal title to the assigned territories, and published manifestoes in justification of these arbitrary measures, yet, as they were conscious that the fallacies by which they supported their pretensions were too gross to impose upon mankind, they forced the Polanders to call a new diet, and threatened them with military execution, if they would not consent unanimously to sign a treaty for the cession of the demanded territories. The king gave his assent; and his example was followed by many of the nobles.

The conduct of the king of Prussia was shamefully tyrannical. In 1771, his troops entered into Great Poland, and carried off, from that province and its neighbourhood, 12,000 families. In the same year, he published an edict, commanding every person, under the severest penalties and even corporal punishment, to take the money offered by his troops and commissaries, for any useful articles which they might wish to procure. He then, with base coin, bought corn and forage, sufficient not only to supply his army for two whole years, but to stock magazines in the country itself, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re-purchase corn for their daily subsistence at an advanced price, and with good money, his commissaries refusing to take the same coin they had paid. At the lowest calculation he gained, by this *honest* manœuvre, seven millions of dollars. When he had 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; the towns and villages were obliged to furnish a certain number of marriageable girls, the parents being ordered to give, as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats. His exactions from the monasteries and cathedrals, and also from the nobility, were so heavy, and so far exceeded their abilities, that the priests abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. These exactions continued, with unabated rigor, to the time when the treaty of partition was declared, and possession taken of

the usurped provinces. 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 rule of justice but his own pride and ambition.

It is remarkable that Prussia, whose sovereign thus disgraced his character, was formerly in a state of vassalage to Poland, which had not even acknowledged the Prussian royalty before the year 1764; that Russia, in the earlier part of the seventeenth century, saw its capital and throne possessed by a Polish prince; and that Austria, in 1683, was indebted to a king of Poland for the preservation of its metropolis, and almost for its very existence.

When the unjust partition had been sanctioned by the intimidated diet, Poland remained for many years in a state of degradation and insignificance, the king even acting as the vassal of Russia. But, when an opportunity of exertion seemed to be offered by the involvement of the empress and the Austrian potentate in a war with the grand signor, many of the nobles resolved, in 1788, to assert the independence of the state. A patriotic confederation was proposed and readily formed; and the military force was augmented to 60,000 men. After long delay, a new constitution was framed, and, in 1791, sanctioned by the diet. It declared the throne hereditary in the Saxon line, gave the king a sufficient degree of authority, restricted the power of the nobles, and afforded protection even to the lowest class of the community. The emissaries of Prussia artfully promoted this revolution, with a view of obtaining a plausible pretence for such an interference in the affairs of Poland, as might gratify the rapacious ambition both of their sovereign and the empress. The new arrangements seemed to give general satisfaction; but they were not carried into full effect. A Russian army attacked the natives with success: Stanislaus was obliged to declare his strong disapprobation of the new code; and, in a diet irregularly assembled, another partition was ordered.

This renewal of injustice roused the people to arms. Thaddeus Kosciusko, who had imbibed in the American war the principles of liberty, was invested, in 1794, with the chief command of the patriotic army; and he soon found an opportunity of signalising his courage. With very small loss, he defeated general Woronzof, of whose men above 1000 fell; and, soon after, the Russians were baffled in an attempt to seize the arsenal at Warsaw, and driven out of the city with great slaughter; but, when they had recruited their strength, they were successful in several conflicts, and captured the patriotic chief. They then attacked Praga, a fortified suburb of Warsaw, and, when they had overpowered the resistance of the garrison, began to murder the inhabitants. After a respite of some hours, they set fire to the town, and renewed the massacre; and about 9000 persons,—unarmed men, defenceless women, and harmless infants,—perished either in the flames or by the sword, under the eye of the brutal Souvorof.

The triumphal entry of the victorious general into Warsaw annihilated the kingdom. That city, and the adjacent territories, were added to the Prussian realm: the town of Cracow and various palatinates were transferred to the Austrian dominion; and the troops of Catharine took possession of the rest of the country. The king became a pensioned subject of Russia; but some atonement was made to the people for the injustice of the confederates, by the introduction of a more regular and efficient government than that which was subverted.

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SOMERSET
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Worcestershire
Leicestershire
Lincolnshire
Nottinghamshire
Derbyshire
Staffordshire
Warwickshire
Northamptonshire
Bedfordshire
Hertfordshire
Middlesex
Essex
Kent
Sussex
Hampshire
Berkshire
Oxfordshire
Buckinghamshire
Hampshire
Wiltshire
Dorset
Somerset
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Worcestershire
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Staffordshire
Warwickshire
Northamptonshire
Bedfordshire
Hertfordshire
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CHANNEL ISLANDS

FURZE COAST

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London Published Map 1782 by J. Mowman & the other Proprietors.

inhabitants of Warsaw and the neighbouring parts of Poland were gratified; in 1807, with a transfer of their country, under the title of a grand duchy, to the house of Saxony, whose government they were disposed to prefer to the Prussian sway, because they expected that it would be more mild and conciliatory. They received from their new master, who was one of Bonaparté's vassal kings, a constitution which ostensibly provided both for energetic government and for the enjoyment of liberty.

When Bonaparté was engaged in his memorable expedition to Russia, in 1812, he flattered the Polanders with a hope of the re-establishment of their kingdom, and declared that it should form a barrier between polished and barbarous nations. The diet, meeting at Warsaw, announced a general confederation, and proclaimed the revival of an independent realm; but, as the Prussians and Austrians were then the allies of Napoleon, he would not allow their territories in Poland to enter into the composition of the restored kingdom, which, however, would have been sufficiently large, as it would have extended from the Warta to the frontiers of Russia and Turkey. These arrangements, if they were really intended, were precluded by that reverse of fortune which crushed the hopes of the invader; and, in 1815, the congress of Vienna decided the fate of Poland. It was ordained, by the arbiters of Europe, that the greater part of the duchy of Warsaw should be added to those territories which Alexander already possessed in Poland; that Cracow should be a free city, with a small circumjacent territory depending upon it; that Galitzia and Lodomeria should continue to be subject to Austria; and that Prussia, beside the recovery of Dantzic, should extend its sway over Great Poland, in the western part of the ancient kingdom.

ENGLAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

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

England contains 50,595 square miles, with more than 222 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] The name of *England* originated from the Angles (a nation of the Cimbric Chersonesus, or modern Jutland) who conquered a great part of Britain.

BOUNDARIES.] England, the largest division of Britain, is bounded on the north by 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 separates it from France.

DIVISIONS, ANCIENT AND MODERN.] When the Romans provincialized the country, they divided it into Britannia Prima, which contained the southern parts; Britannia Secunda, comprehending the western parts; Maxima Cæsariensis, which reached from the Trent to the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, and sometimes to the Forth and Clyde; and Flavia Cæsariensis, which contained the midland counties.



When the Saxons invaded the island, their chief leaders appropriated the counties which each had been the most instrumental in conquering; and the whole formed, in 585, a heptarchy. In time of war, a chief was chosen from the seven kings, by public consent; so that the Saxon heptarchy appears to have resembled the constitution of Greece during the heroic ages.

THE ANGLO-SAXON HEPTARCHY.

KINGDOMS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
1. Kent, founded by Hengist in 457	Kent	Canterbury
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491	Sussex Surrey	Chichester Southwark
3. East-Angles, founded by Uffa in 575	Norfolk Suffolk Cambridge Cornwall Devon	Norwich Bury St. Edmund's Cambridge Launceston Exeter
4. West-Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 1519	Dorset Somerset Wilts Hants Berks Lancaster York	Dorchester Bath Salisbury Winchester Abingdon Lancaster York
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 547	Durham Cumberland Westmorland Northumberland, and Scotland to the frith of Edinburgh	Durham Carlisle Appleby Newcastle
6. East-Saxons, founded by Erchenwin in 527	Essex Middlesex, and part of Hertford The other parts of Hertford	Chelmsford London Hertford
	Glocester Hereford Worcester Warwick Leicester Rutland Northampton	Glocester Hereford Worcester Warwick Leicester Oakham Northampton
7. Mercia, founded by Crida in 585	Lincoln Huntingdon Bedford Buckingham Oxford Stafford Derby Salop Nottingham Chester	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 some 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 forty counties, all of which, except 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.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] No nation in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in beautiful scenes. The variety of highlands and low-lands, the former gently swelling, and both of them forming the most luxuriant prospects, the corn and meadow grounds, the intermixtures of enclosure 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 colors of nature, are objects of which an adequate idea cannot be conveyed by description. The most barren spots are not without verdure. But nothing can give us a higher idea of the English industry, than observing that some of the pleasantest counties in the kingdom, naturally the most barren, are rendered fruitful by labor.

MOUNTAINS.] Though England is full of delightful rising grounds, and the most enchanting slopes, it contains few mountains. The principal are Sea-fell and Skiddaw in Cumberland, Whern and Ingleborough in Yorkshire, Pendle in Lancashire, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, the Peak of Derbyshire, the Chiltern in Bucks, Malvern in Worcestershire, Coteswold in Gloucestershire, and the Wrekin in Shropshire. It may be observed, that the northern eminences in this list are chiefly composed of lime-stone, free-stone, slate, or schistus; that granite abounds in the Malvern hills; and those of Chiltern are a mass of chalk, mingled with flint; while the Wrekin consists of a coarse grey whin, red on the surface from the oxydation of its iron ore.

FORESTS.] The first Norman kings of England, partly for political purposes, that they might the more effectually enslave their new subjects, and partly from the wantonness of power, converted immense tracts of grounds into forests for hunting. These were governed by laws peculiar to themselves; so that it was necessary, about the time of passing Magna-Charter, 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 deforested; and the chief forests, properly so called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are those of Windsor, New-Forest, Dean, and Sherwood. These forests formerly produced great quantities of excellent oak, elm, ash, and beech, beside 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 500 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 were frequent in England, until they were drained and converted into arable land. The chief meres remaining are those of Soham and Whittlesea in Cambridgeshire, and Ramsey in the county of Huntingdon. The lakes in Westmorland, Lancashire, and

Cumberland, are well known, being frequently visited for their picturesque beauties.

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; thence to Kingston, Richmond, and London; and, after dividing Kent and Essex, falls into the sea at the Nore.

The Medway, which rises near Tonbridge, joins the Thames at Sheerness, and is navigable for the largest ships as far as Chatham. The Severn, reckoned the second river for importance in England, and the first for rapidity, rises at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales; becomes navigable at Welsh-Pool; runs east to Shrewsbury; then, turning south, visits Bridgenorth, Worcester, and Tewkesbury, where it receives the Upper Avon: after having passed Gloucester, it takes a south-west direction; is, near its mouth, increased by the Wye and Uske, 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-Lyme, 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 toward the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the sea south-east of Hull.

Another considerable river in England is the Ouse, which falls into the Humber after receiving the waters of many other rivers. A second Ouse rises in Bucks, and falls into the sea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tyne takes its course from west to east through Northumberland, and falls into the German sea at Tynmouth, below Newcastle. The Tees passes 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 flows from south to north through Westmorland and Cumberland, and, passing by Carlisle, falls into Solway-Frith. The Lower Avon runs west through Wiltshire to Bath, and then, dividing Somersetshire from Gloucestershire, proceeds to Bristol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent runs from east to west through Cumberland, and, passing by Cockermouth, 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 flows 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 want of water, and supply themselves by trenches, or by 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; and, very fortunately, 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 Tonbridge, Epsom, Cheltenham, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea-water is also strongly recommended by the guardians of our health; 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.] Since the middle of the last century, a great number of navigable canals have been cut in various parts of England, which have greatly contributed to the improvement of the country, and the facilitation of commercial intercourse between the trading towns. The first, in point of date, is the Sankey canal, the act of parliament for which was obtained in 1755. It was cut to convey coal from the extensive pits at St. Helen's, near Prescott, to the Mersey, and to Liverpool, and is only twelve miles long. But the canals of the late duke of Bridgewater are of much greater importance, both for their 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 was formed, as a reservoir to the navigation. The canal runs through a hill, by a subterraneous 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 at the top of the hill. At Barton-bridge, three miles from the basin, is an aqueduct, which, for more than 200 yards, conveys the canal across a valley and the navigable river Irwell. There are three arches over this river; the central one is 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 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; but it was not completed before 1777. Its length is 99 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, which is 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, 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 Coventry canal at Braunston in Northamptonshire. A great number of other canals have been cut in various parts of the kingdom; as the Lancaster canal; one from Liverpool to Leeds, carried

through an extent of 117 miles; the canal from Halifax to Manchester, 31 miles; one from Basingstoke to the Thames at Weybridge; another from Andover to the river near Southampton; and many others; which it would be tedious to enumerate. Some of these are carried at a great height over rivers, or from one hill to another, by aqueducts of a very ingenious construction.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] Among the minerals, the tin-mines of Cornwall deservedly take the lead. They were known to the Phenicians 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 great advantage to the nation. These tin-works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the stannary laws; and the miners have parliaments and peculiar privileges. Iron is found in plenty in England: the principal mines of it are in Colebrook-dale, Shropshire, Dean-forest in Gloucestershire, and some parts of the north of England. Lead is obtained in Somersetshire, Derbyshire, Yorkshire, Northumberland, and other counties. Gold has been found near Selsoe in Bedfordshire; but the produce of the ore is very scanty. Particles of this valuable metal are found in tin-mines; and silver is frequently extracted from the ore of lead. We know a gentleman who has a complete service of plate, formed of the silver which was found in his lead-mines.—Copper is a part of the produce of Cornwall, Yorkshire, and Staffordshire. 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 immense mines of rock-salt. 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. Cheshire likewise produces alum. The fuller's earth found in Berkshire, and in some other counties, is of considerable consequence to the clothing trade. 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 coal, to other countries, is also very considerable. It has been remarked, as a providential or fortunate circumstance, that the counties which are most productive of metals, afford also an abundance of coal for the convenience of extracting and preparing the ore.

[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. In many places, the air is loaded with vapors wafted from the Atlantic Ocean by westerly winds; and the weather is so excessively capricious, and unfavorable 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.

In consequence of the mutability of the climate, the seasons are very uncertain. Spring, summer, autumn, and winter, come by rotation; but in what month their different appearances will take place is by no means determined. 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 October are the two most agreeable months in the year. The natives sometimes experience all the four seasons within the compass of one day. This inconsistency, 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 differs in every county, not merely from the nature of the ground, though that must occasion a very considerable alteration, but from the progress made in each in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marshes, and other local improvements, which are here prosecuted with greater skill and attention, than in any other part of the world, if we except China. In no country is agriculture better understood. Excellent institutions for its improvement are now common in England; and their members publish periodical accounts of their discoveries and experiments. The proper cultivation of the soil is an object so peculiarly interesting to the community, that those who most assiduously attend to it are perhaps to be accounted the most meritorious citizens.

VEGETABLES.] England produces in abundance wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, oats, and other grain. It is almost needless to mention, to the most uninformed reader, in what plenty the most excellent fruit, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooseberries, raspberries, and other hortulane productions, grow here; and what quantities of cider, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in some counties. The cider of Devon and Herefordshire, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is preferred by some palates to French white wine. The natives of England have made the different fruits of the world their own, sometimes by simple culture, often by hot-beds and other means of forcing nature. The English pine-apples are delicious; but they are not so abundant as to bear a moderate price. Our grapes are pleasing to the taste; yet their flavor is not exalted enough for making wine; and indeed wet weather injures the flavor of all other fine fruits raised in this country.

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, 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, Surrey, and Hampshire, is most favorable to the difficult and tender culture of hops.

ANIMALS.] The English oxen are large and fat; but some prefer for the table the smaller breed of the Scotch and Welsh cattle, after they have been fed 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 favorite and noble animal: and the success has been answerable; for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Persian, Arabian, and Spanish 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.

The English sheep are of two kinds; those which are valuable for their fleeces, 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. Mr. Bakewell was particularly famous for his improvements in the breed of sheep. The finest fleeces are those of Herefordshire, Gloucestershire, and Devonshire, while the South-down sheep furnish the most delicate food.

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., 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 a 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. 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; but we do not see the necessity of keeping up this sort of animal courage, because the feelings which excite it are not those of a civilised being.

Of the wild quadrupeds of this country, the different kinds are not very numerous. We have the wild cat, the fox, the badger, the weasel, the otter, and some others. Deer abound in the parks of the gentry, contributing both to the amusement of the hunter and the luxury of the epicure.

Game birds are much the same in England as in other countries. The wild sorts are bustards, wigeons, plovers, pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, grouse, quail, landrail, snipes, wood-pigeons, hawks of different kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, daws, 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 flavor, 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 mullets, bream, plaice, flounders, and cray-fish. A delicate fish, called char, is found in some fresh-water lakes of Wales and Cumberland. The sea-fish are cod, mackerel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, skait, soles. The dory, found toward the western coast, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fish are found on the same coast. Lobsters, crabs, oysters, shrimps, scallops, and 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.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among the natural curiosities of this country, those of Derbyshire appear to deserve the first place. Eldon Hole is a chasm in the side of a mountain, nearly seven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminishing in extent within the rock. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, of which the last eighty were wet,

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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. A current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its sounding re-echoed stream, 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, fonts, organs, and the like. The entrance into the stupendous cavern at Castleton is wide at first, and more than 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 colored stones.

Other extraordinary caverns are found in the mountains of the north of England, as Yordas Cave, in Kingsdale, 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 with salt, as that of Droitwich in Worcestershire; or with 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. Some ebb and flow, as those of the Peak in Derbyshire, that of Settle in Yorkshire, and Laywell, near Torbay.

POPULATION.] At the time of the Norman Conquest, England, in the opinion of Sir Matthew Hale and Mr. Gregory King, scarcely contained two millions of persons; but this is mere supposition, and the calculation is seemingly too low. In the year 1600, the number of inhabitants, in all probability, exceeded 4,250,000. In 1700, it is supposed that above 5,100,000 persons occupied the country; but the amount declined in the ensuing ten years, in the ratio of a twentieth part. The lost number, however, was soon regained; and, in 1802, the population exceeded 8,330,000. In 1811, it was above nine millions and a half; and, in 1821, it rose to 11,261,437;—of which number 1,173,187 belonged to Yorkshire, and 1,144,531 were included in Middlesex; and there is reason to believe that the amount is now (in 1826) much greater, perhaps, by one half of a million.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] Englishmen, in their persons, are generally regularly-featured, commonly fair, well-formed, 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, 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 humor. 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 dependent; 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 almost as frequently as Englishmen visited them; and the effects of the intercourse become daily more visible, especially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one sex.

Such of the English gentlemen as do not enter into the higher walks of life, affect a comfortable 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 are observable among tradesmen. Comfort is more studied by the English than by any other people, and is the ultimate end of all their application, labors, and fatigues.

The English manifest their humanity in their large subscriptions for public charities. The persons who contribute to those collections are at the same time assessed in proportion to their property for the parochial poor, who have a legal demand for their maintenance; yet, even at this day, when the poor-rates have risen to an alarming height, spontaneous liberality flows in a very copious stream.

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, so as almost to excite 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 more particularly 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 ardor of attack which the French sometimes display, they can support and defeat such an attack. Their soldiers will keep up their fire in the face of danger; but, when they deliver it, it has a most dreadful effect upon their enemies. Their seamen are equal in point of intrepidity to those of any other nation, and superior in alertness and skill.

For invention the English are not remarkable, though they are for their improvements upon the inventions of others; and in the mechanical arts they surpass all their contemporaries. The intense application which an Englishman gives to a favorite study is incredible, and, as it

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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.

One quality remains to be mentioned, not indeed as peculiar to the English, but as marking their character in a high degree—we mean, public spirit, or zeal for the service, honor, interest, and prosperity of the country. But it has been remarked, by a writer who prefers truth to flattery, that “this exterior patriotism does not preclude the most shameless rapacity among those who ostensibly serve the state. However insignificant may be their services, they seem to think that they cannot be too profusely rewarded. In this point all parties agree; and the people severely suffer by this systematic rapine. We are far from recommending an illiberal treatment of persons who are thought worthy of public employment; but the grant of large pensions for life, in return for a short term of service, cannot be justified: still less can that misplaced lenity or connivance be vindicated, which suffers the base purloiners of the public money to escape exemplary punishment, when ordinary robbery, which is certainly not more criminal, is deemed a capital offence.”

The English are not so devoted to amusement as the French: yet they are far from being disinclined to occasional diversions. They are fond of dramatic exhibitions, of operas, concerts, masquerades; and, in almost every provincial town, there are periodical assemblies for cards and dancing. Their attention is strongly excited by horse-races; hunting and coursing are pursued with avidity by many of the gentry, who also amuse themselves with the destruction of feathered game. Cock-fighting, which was formerly a favorite diversion, is nearly disused; and bull-baiting is deservedly sinking into neglect. The athletic diversion of cricket is still kept up, and is sometimes practised by persons of the highest rank. Many other pastimes are common in England, such as endgeling, wrestling, and playing with bowls, nine-pins, and quoits; 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 are under strict regulations. Swimming, angling, rowing, and sailing, may likewise be mentioned among the diversions of our countrymen. The last, if not introduced, was patronised and encouraged by Frederic prince of Wales, and may be considered as a national improvement. The English are also 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.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] London, the metropolis of the British empire, 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.

London is now, what ancient Rome once was, the seat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the world. It 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 the active and industrious provincials send their commodities, whence they are diffused over the world. Hence innumerable carriages by land and water are con-

stantly employed; and hence arises the circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful and vigorous; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head and the most distant members.

This city is situated on the banks of the Thames, a river which is remarkably commodious for commerce, and is continually filled with vessels sailing to or from the most remote climates. For ages, it was destitute of large wet docks; but, within our own times, three capital works of that description have marked the opulence of the city and the India company,—the West-India docks in the Isle of Dogs, the London docks at Wapping, and the East-India docks at Blackwall; and new docks are now in progress near the Tower.

As London is about 60 miles distant from the sea, it enjoys, by means of its noble river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being surprised by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the vapors of the sea. It rises regularly from the water-side, and, extending itself on both sides along its banks, reaches a great length from east to west, in a kind of amphitheatre toward the north, and is continued for many miles on all sides, in a succession of villas and villages. Its irregular form makes it difficult to ascertain its extent. However, its length from east to west is above six miles, from Hyde-park Corner to Poplar: and its breadth in some places three, in others two, and, in some, considerably less than one. Hence the circumference of the whole is about 17 miles.

In London, properly so called,—that is, the part situated within the walls,—are 98 parishes; in the city without the walls, eleven; and, in Westminster, ten. Of the two former divisions, the population, in 1821, was calculated at 125,434 individuals, composing 28,068 families, and occupying 17,170 houses; while Westminster had 182,085 inhabitants, who resided in 18,502 houses. If we extend the environs to Finchley in the north, to Hammersmith and Acton in the west, and to Bow in the east, without including Southwark or any part of Surrey, we find that, in the same year, the population of the adjacent villages and districts swelled the amount of the metropolitan residents to 1,066,409; and, at the present time, perhaps 50,000 more may, on reasonable grounds, be added to the enumeration.

London-bridge was first built of stone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax upon wool. It was at various times altered and improved, particularly in 1756, when the houses which were upon it were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient. It crosses the Thames where it is 915 feet broad, and has 19 arches irregularly built. This bridge will soon be demolished, because great progress has been made in a new one, higher up the river.

Westminster bridge is reckoned one of the most complete structures of the kind. It is built entirely of stone, and extends 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, with places of shelter from the rain. It consists of 14 piers, and 13 large and two small arches, all semi-circular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the rest decreasing four feet each from the other. This magnificent structure was begun in 1738, and finished in 1750.

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. This bridge was finished in ten years: it was opened to the public in 1770.

After a long interval of acquiescence in the sufficiency of these three bridges for general communication, the citizens and the inhabitants of the suburbs began to wish for additional structures of this kind. A bridge was therefore undertaken, by private subscription, from Mill-bank to Vauxhall. It was framed with skill and elegance: it consists of nine arches of neat and strong iron-work, separated from each other by substantial piers of stone. Another was soon after proposed; and, within six years, it was completed under the direction of Mr. Rennie. It crosses the Thames from the Strand, near Somerset-place, and bears the honorable name of Waterloo. It was opened in 1817, on the second anniversary of the battle, by the prince regent and the duke of Wellington. The length of this bridge is 1242 feet, the width 42. It is built of granite, with a mixture of inferior stone; the arches are elliptical; the piers are well-constructed, each resting on 320 piles; and the masonry of the whole work reflects credit on all who were employed in the laborious task. To correspond with the elevation of the structure, an excellent road has been formed on the Surrey side of the river, passing over forty arches of strong brick-work. An iron bridge has since been thrown over the Thames, from Queenhithe to the borough of Southwark, consisting of only three arches. It may here be mentioned, that the English introduced the use of cast iron for erections of this kind. The bridge at Colebrook-dale was the first; but that is not so well-constructed or so striking as the lofty and romantic iron bridge at Sunderland.

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. It 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 had laid the first stone. It occupies six acres of ground, though the whole length of the church measures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expense of this building amounted to 747,900 pounds. The noble simplicity of the centre, dignified by one of the finest cupolas that ever emanated from human art, did not seem to require adventitious decorations; and, therefore, monuments were long excluded from it: but many have been lately introduced in honor of distinguished men.

The abbey-church of Westminster is a venerable Gothic pile. A religious edifice first arose on this spot from the piety of Sebert king of the East-Saxons, who died in 616. Edward the Confessor built a monastery and a church nearly in the same situation: but the bulk of the present building was reared by Henry III. The architectural taste of Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the east end of it. This is the receptacle of the deceased British kings and nobility; and here are also monuments erected to the memory of many great and illustrious personages, naval and military commanders, philosophers, poets, &c.

The inside of the church of St. Stephen, Walbrook, is admired for its lightness and elegance, and does honor to the memory of sir Christopher Wren. The same may be said of the steeples of St. Mary-le-Bow, and St. Bride, which are supposed to be the most complete in their kind of any in Europe. The simplicity of the portico of the church of Covent-Garden, built by Inigo Jones, is worthy of the purest ages of ancient architecture. That of St. Martin in the Fields will appear more

noble and striking when the avenues to it are (as they soon will be) widened and improved. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taste; and some of the chapels have grace and proportion to recommend them.

The banqueting-house at Whitehall is only 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, of which the roof is not supported by pillars; it being 230 feet long, and 70 broad. The roof is the finest of its kind. Here are solemnised the coronation-feasts of our kings and queens; and here the chancellor and the twelve judges hold their courts.

The Monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of the great 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; but the inscription asserts a gross falsehood, in attributing the fire to the malignity of the papists.

This great and populous city is supplied with abundance of fresh water, from the Thames and a canal called the New River. Not only is this supply of essential 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 last 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 a proper supply of water, rendered the city seldom free from pestilential contagion. That dreadful fire 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, 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 mean and selfish views.

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 uniformity in the streets of the city of London, and the mean avenues to many parts of it, are 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 intended to be concealed. The improvements of London and Westminster, for some years past, have however been very great; and

the new streets, which are numerous, are not only spacious, but are built with great regularity and elegance. The new street, from the front of Carleton-house to the Regent's Park, is one of the finest in Europe.

When various improvements were in contemplation, Durham-yard, being private property, engaged the notice of the ingenious brothers of the name of Adam, who raised, upon arches, the pile of the Adelphi, celebrated for its prospect, the utility of its wharfs, and its subterraneous apartments, answering a variety of purposes of general benefit. Not far from this spot, stood Somerset-house, where buildings for public offices were erected by sir William Chambers, many years ago, on a magnificent scale, worthy of a great nation. Moor-fields, long a waste and mean part of the town, became the site of Finsbury-square, more regular and elegant than some of those at the west end of the metropolis. The narrow and inconvenient passage of Snow-hill was opened by a spacious street of lofty and elegant houses. A similar improvement was, about the same time, carried into effect to the westward of Temple-bar, notwithstanding the preservation of the ancient gate and the intervention of St. Clement's church. The improvements to the north-west, between Holborn and Oxford-street, on one hand, and the New-Road on the other, are likewise striking and ornamental; and, in all other directions, a similar taste is eagerly displayed.

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 monastery; and that of Kensington, which was purchased from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens. Carleton-house is splendidly fitted up; but the edifice is not remarkable for exterior dignity, and it will soon be superseded by other buildings, as a new palace is now in progress. 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 favorite residence of king William. 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 war.

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 opulence of the English nation shines forth in its fullest point of view. In these also the princely fortunes of the nobility are rendered subservient to the finest classical taste; more particularly at the seats of the duke of Buckingham and the earl of 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 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. Here are twenty-three parish-churches, and a very noble cathedral, or

minster, one of the finest Gothic buildings in Europe. It extends in length 525 feet, and in breadth 110 feet. The nave is larger than any in Christendom, except that of St. Peter's church at Rome. 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. Near the cathedral is the Assembly-house, a noble structure, designed by the earl of Burlington. Many of the provincial gentry reside in this town during the winter: but it has few manufactures and little trade, and is not very populous, the number of inhabitants not far exceeding 20,000.

Liverpool, which, in 1700, had only about 3000 inhabitants, had 77,650 in 1801, and now boasts of a population of 120,000. Its situation, naturally advantageous, has been greatly improved by art. It has an excellent harbour, furnished with many wet and dry docks. In the traffic for slaves, it had the largest share; and, since the abolition of that odious branch of trade, it has prosecuted general commerce to such an extent, as to command a fourth part of the aggregate foreign trade of Great Britain.

Bristol, which was for centuries the second commercial city in Great Britain, now ranks as the third. It is not in general well-built; but it contains a fine quay, a handsome exchange, a stately ancient cross, some elegant halls of trading companies, and one of the most beautiful Gothic churches which the kingdom can exhibit. By turning the Avon into a new channel, and other judicious operations, the inhabitants have lately formed a capacious dock, over a space of thirty-five acres, to remedy that inconvenience which attended the reflux of the tide, when the vessels ceased for a time to float. Many branches of art are prosecuted in this city with zealous industry. Works of iron, brass, and lead, are carried on; cannon, during the war, were bored by the powerful aid of a steam-engine; the glass manufacture flourishes; and many articles of clothing are well fabricated. The population is estimated at 90,000 persons, in this city and its environs.

The neighbouring city of Bath took its name from some natural hot baths, for the medicinal virtues of which this place has been long celebrated. In the spring, it 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 8000 persons at Bath, beside its ordinary inhabitants, who amount to about 39,000. Some of the modern buildings are extremely elegant, particularly Queen-square, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, the Circus, the new and the old Crescent. Of the old town, the cathedral is the most striking ornament. A fine tower rises from the centre: the western window is particularly admired; and the interior displays many handsome monuments. The charitable institutions of Bath are numerous and well-conducted; and it boasts of an agricultural and a philosophical society.

Exeter was for some time the seat of the West-Saxon kings; and the walls, which at this time enclose it, were built by Athelstan. It has sixteen parish-churches, beside chapels and meeting-houses. Its trade is very considerable in coarse woollen goods; and it employs vessels in the Newfoundland and Greenland fisheries. Its inhabitants are about 25,000.

Manchester, though deemed only a village, far exceeds in population

every town or city in England, even London itself (considered without regard to Westminster or the environs), the number of its occupants not being less than 135,000. For this extraordinary amount, and for its flourishing state, it is almost entirely indebted to its excellence in the cotton manufacture.

Leeds, which is equally eminent in the woollea branch, numbers about 85,000 persons within its circuit.

Birmingham and Sheffield are famous for cutlery, plated and japanned goods, works in enamel, and hard-ware of every description. Mr. Burke called the former place the toy-shop of Europe. It contains about 109,000, inhabitants, while Sheffield has not more than 65,000.

No other nation has such dock-yards, with all conveniences for naval construction and repairs, as Portsmouth, Plymouth, Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The Royal Hospital at Greenwich, for superannuated seamen, is scarcely exceeded by any royal palace, for its magnificence and expense; and Chelsea Hospital also deserves honorable mention, as a comfortable retreat for aged, infirm, or disabled soldiers, and a noble monument of national gratitude and liberality.

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; but it was not before 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. was an encourager of trade; the India company flourished in his reign; and British America saw her most valuable colonies rise under him and his family. The spirit of commerce kept pace 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 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 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; and hence it became necessary for us also to watch the commercial progress of our neighbours, and, if not to incommode and obstruct their traffic, to prevent them from injuring our own. We likewise settled colonies in America, which was then 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, 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 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, until the armada he had raised at a vast expense for the con-

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

At that time we were so imperfectly provided with the means of commerce, that we were glad to procure 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 other articles, came from France. Portugal furnished us with sugar : all the produce of America was brought to us from Spain ; and the Venetians and Genoese retailed to us the commodities of India 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, the number of English merchants very small, and our shipping much inferior to what belonged to the American colonies before their revolt.

Great-Britain is admirably calculated for a commercial nation, as well from its situation as an island, as from the freedom and excellence of its constitution, and from its natural products and considerable manufactures. For exportation, our country produces many very useful commodities ; as cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, coal, alum, &c. 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, biscuits, we victual not only our own fleets, but many foreign vessels. Our iron we export manufactured in a variety of forms. Prodigious and almost incredible is the value likewise of other goods which are hence exported.

Of the British commerce, that branch which we enjoyed exclusively, namely, our colonial trade, was long regarded as the most advantageous. Yet, since the separation of the American states from the British dominions, our trade, industry, and manufactures, have greatly increased ; and our trade with that republic is much more considerable than it was before the revolt. In consequence, also, of the opening of new markets, the talents and skill of our artisans have taken a wider range ; the productions of their labor have been adapted to the wants, not merely of rising colonies, but of nations the most wealthy and refined ; and our commercial system, no longer resting on the

artificial basis of monopoly, has been rendered more solid as well as more liberal.

With the West-Indian islands, the English trade consists chiefly in sugar, 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 linen of all sorts, broad cloth and kerseys, silks and stuffs, hats and red caps, stockings and shoes, gloves and millinery, all sorts of iron implements and utensils, articles of copper and brass, cabinet-ware, toys, &c.

The trade of England to India constitutes one of the most stupendous political as well as commercial machines that history exhibits. For two centuries, it was exclusive, and was lodged in a company which had a temporary monopoly of it, in consideration of money advanced to the government. This company exported to the East-Indies all kinds of woollen manufactures, all sorts of hardware, lead, bullion, and quick-silver. Its imports consisted of gold, diamonds, raw-silk, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain or China-ware, salt-petre for home-consumption; and of wrought silks, muslin, calico, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries.

To Turkey, our countrymen send woollen-cloths, tin, lead, iron, hardware, clocks, watches, verdegris, spices, cochineal, logwood, sugar, and rice; for which they receive, beside money, raw silk, carpets, skins, dyeing drugs, cotton, fruit, medicinal drugs, coffee, and some other articles. To Italy are sent woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead, tin, dried and salted fish, and the produce of the East and West-Indies, in exchange for raw and thrown silk, wine, oil, soap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dried fruit, colors, pickles, &c.

To Spain, England sends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fish, corn, iron and brass manufactures, haberdashery, assortments of linen, from Germany and elsewhere, for the American colonies; and receives, in return, wine, oil, dried fruit, oranges, lemons, olives, wool, indigo, cochineal, and other dyeing drugs, beside gold and silver. Portugal formerly was, on commercial accounts, the favorite ally of England, whose fleets and armies more than once saved her from ruin. England sends to that country the same kind of merchandises as to Spain, and receives nearly the same species of commodities.

Our trade with France does not extend to a very great variety of articles. We import the wines of Champagne and Burgundy, claret, brandy, preserved fruit, corn, oil, liquorice, silk, cambrie, millinery, kid-skins, and perfumery; and we supply the French with tin, lead, iron, and various manufactured goods, but not in sufficient quantities to preclude an unfavorable balance of trade. With Holland and the Netherlands we have considerable traffic; but, since the late union of those countries, such heavy duties have been imposed by their sovereign upon the transit of our manufactured goods through any of his provinces to the Rhine, that this branch of trade is necessarily diverted to the Elbe, whence the commodities are sent through the Hanoverian kingdom into many parts of Germany.

With the great northern empire the English trade is by no means inconsiderable. From Russia the chief exports to this country are iron, timber, hemp, flax, linseed, pitch, tar, tallow, hides, mats, and sheeting; in return for which, woollen and cotton goods, cutlery, glass, porcelain, and other manufactured articles, are received by the emperor's subjects, who also employ many British vessels for the conveyance of

their merchandise to other countries. From Sweden and Norway, we receive iron, deal, tar, and pitch; but, from Denmark, very few articles beside hides and corn. From Dantzic and Memel we derive large supplies of corn and timber; and our trade in the Baltic is evidently superior to that of other mercantile communities.

The prodigious extent of the trade of England, and its great and rapid increase in modern times, 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 under-mentioned, may be thus stated:

	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>

In 1802, the chancellor of the exchequer, Mr. Addington, stated to the house of commons, that the real value of imports in the year ending on the 5th of January, might be estimated at 58,680,000*l.*; that the real value of British manufactures exported in 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 19,772 registered vessels, belonging to the British dominions, were employed in trade in 1801, their tonnage being 2,027,317, and their number of men 143,987.

In 1815, the exports had so greatly increased, as to amount to 60,983,894 pounds, more than two-thirds of which consisted of British produce and manufactures; and the imports were proportionally less, so as to create a very favorable balance. With occasional fluctuations, our commercial success has since been still more striking and effective.

Some of the towns which supply the exports that we have enumerated have been already specified; but we will state farther particulars connected with that subject. Woollen manufactures are common to almost all the western counties. Dorsetshire affords marble and stone, prepares cordage and sail-cloth, makes a great quantity of lace, and feeds a vast number of sheep. Somersetshire, beside furnishing lead, copper, and *lapis calaminaris*, manufactures lace, stockings, and caps. Devonshire affords excellent carpets; Wiltshire has fabrics of the same kind, and its cutlery is not despicable.

Manufactures of all kinds are carried on in London and its neighbourhood. The varied and elegant forms of jewelry and glass-work, the best clocks and watches, cutlery superior even to that of Sheffield, figures and devices in artificial stone, articles of admirable workmanship in gold and silver, useful and ornamental furniture for houses, and silk and satin for the decoration of the person, evince the industry and skill of the artisans. In Essex, serges and other woollen commodities are well manufactured. Norwich, the populous capital of Norfolk, is famous for its stuffs, shawls, and crape. Lace is the chief production of art in Buckinghamshire. All sorts of stockings are furnished for general supply by the inhabitants of the counties of Northampton, Leicester, and Derby, and more particularly by the people of Nottingham. Good porcelain is made at Derby; but it is not equal to that of Worcester, a city which has also acquired reputation by its carpets. The Derbyshire spar

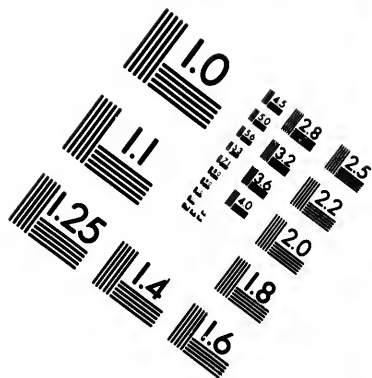
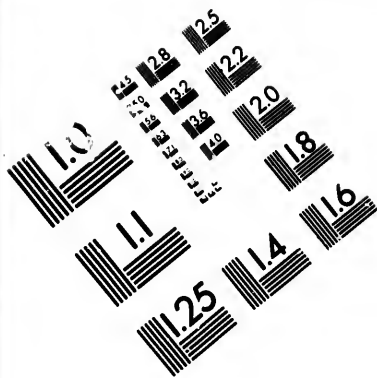
has become an article of exportation, when polished and wrought into vases and other forms. In this process, the steam-engine is employed, as it also is in many other branches of art: it is even used to propel vessels in canals against the wind, and in rivers both against the wind and tide. We may here observe, that the great use of this engine was not fully known before the present age. The marquis of Worcester, in the time of Charles I., merely applied it to the purpose of raising water by the force of expansion: but Mr. Watt so improved its construction, as to render it operative in many ways of which the inventor never thought. It now consists of a large cylinder or barrel, in which is fitted a piston. Steam is thus supplied from a large boiler, which, forcing up the piston, opens a valve, through which cold water rushes. Fresh steam is then introduced, which forces it down again, and drives the water out of the pipe with immense force; and, by this alternate motion of the piston up and down a large beam, which communicates to various kinds of machinery the power of a hundred or more horses, the grandest operations are performed.

In Staffordshire the art of the potter has been greatly improved, so as to produce vases which rival those of ancient Etruria, and many other well-formed articles. The porcelain of Salop is in some estimation; but that county does not flourish in manufactures. Cheshire is famous for its cheese, which is occasionally exported to the continent. In Lancashire and Yorkshire, the manufacturing towns are numerous and well-peopled; and the commodities of the latter county are exported to various parts of Europe and America by the merchants of Hull, whose trade annually increases. Newcastle, beside the great benefit of the coal trade, has considerable manufactures in hardware, and broad and narrow cloths.

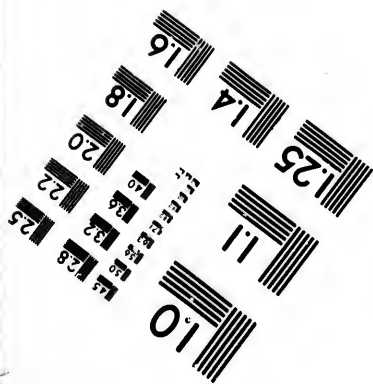
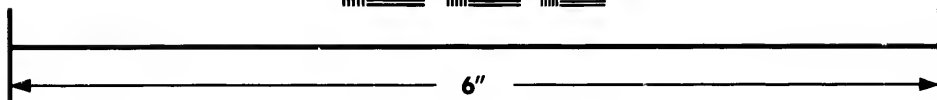
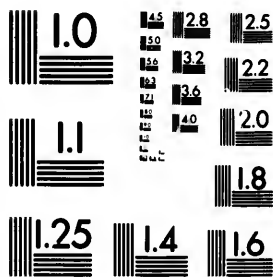
We might make great additions to this sketch, if we did not consider these remarks as sufficient, when so many other topics call for our attention.

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 560 years, if we reckon from the year 1265, when Montfort's parliament assembled. It must at the same time be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and some interruptions. On the first invasion of England by the Saxons, 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 merit 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. All civil affairs were proposed in an assembly of the leading men and the people, until, by degrees, sheriffs and other civil officers were appointed. To Alfred we owe that masterpiece of judicial policy, the division of England into wapentakes and hundreds, and the sub-division of hundreds into tithings; 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 points of litigation 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.





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It is certain that they were in use among the earliest Saxon colonies; and we find traces of juries in the laws of all those nations which adopted the feudal system, as in Germany, France, and Italy.

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

The first princes of the Norman line afterwards strenuously endeavoured to efface from the minds of the people the remembrance of the Saxon constitution; but the attempt was fruitless. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints against the crown; and, after much war and bloodshed, the famous charter of English liberty was extorted from king John, and confirmed by Henry III. It does not appear that, before the reign of this prince, 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.

In all states there is an absolute supreme power, to which the right of legislation belongs; and which, in this realm, is vested in the king, lords, and commons.

[OF THE KING.] The supreme executive power 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 depends, is, that the crown, by common law and constitutional custom, is hereditary, but that the right of inheritance may be changed or limited by act of parliament.

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the royal succession, 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, daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and grand-daughter of Edmund Ironside, was the person in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings 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 family James I. was the lineal descendant; and he 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 therefore vacant. In consequence of this vacancy, and from a regard

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to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next protestant heirs of Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of succession; with a temporary exception, or preference of the person of William III. On the impending failure of the protestant line of king Charles I. (whereby the throne might again have become vacant), the parliament extended the settlement of the crown to the protestant line of 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 which the heirs of the crown descend.

Though in some points the Revolution was not so perfect as might have been wished, yet, from that era, the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been more accurately 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 English history. 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 conduct of king James amounted to an endeavour to subvert the constitution, and not to an actual subversion or dissolution of the government. They therefore voted it to amount to no more than an abdication of the government, and a consequent vacancy of the throne. Thus 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 the constitution was kept entire, which, upon every sound principle of government, must otherwise have fallen to pieces, if so principal and constituent a part as the royal authority had been abolished, or even suspended.

Hence it is easy to collect that the title to the crown is at present hereditary, though not quite so absolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common stock, or ancestor from whom the descent must be derived, is also different. Originally the common stock was king Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterward, in the time of James I., 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 devolved 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 that princess as are members of the church of England, and are married to none but protestants.

In this due medium consists the true constitutional notion of the right of succession to the crown. The extremes between which it steers, have been thought to be destructive of those ends for which societies were formed. 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, it will be found 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 probably 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 the oath taken 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, take the oath of allegiance to the crown. By this oath, the king engages to govern the people according to the laws and customs of the realm, and the parliamentary statutes; to execute law and justice in mercy; to maintain the laws of God, the true profession of the Gospel, and the protestant reformed religion established by law. In this summary are comprehended all the duties which a monarch can owe to his people.

The king of Great-Britain is the greatest monarch reigning over a free people. His person is sacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treason even to imagine or intend his death. In himself, he cannot 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 limits prescribed by the constitution; he can make no new laws, nor raise 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; 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 adjourn, prorogue, or dissolve it at pleasure; and refuse his assent to any bill, though it has passed both houses;—but this is a prerogative which the kings of England have not exercised since the reign of William III. He possesses the right of choosing his own council: of nominating all the great officers of state, of the household, and of the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honor, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived.

[OF THE PARLIAMENT.] It is agreed (says sir William Blackstone) that in the main the constitution of parliament, as it now stands, was marked out so long ago as the year 1215, in the charter granted by king John, in which 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 1265, there being still extant writs of that date to summon knights, citizens, and burgesses, to parliament. These writs were issued during the prevalence of the powerful earl of Leicester; and the custom was continued, with some intermissions, after his ruin and death.

The parliament is assembled by the king's writs, and its sitting must not be intermitted above three years. Its constituent parts are, the king, sitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three estates of the realm, the lords spiritual and 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 alone can dissolve the assembly.

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 laws; but it may approve or disapprove the alterations suggested by the two houses. The legislature, 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 should agree to alter it. And herein indeed consists the true excellence of the English government, that all the parts of it form a check upon each other.

The lords spiritual are two archbishops and twenty-four bishops, with four from Ireland. The lords temporal are 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 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 Scottish nobility, and the twenty-eight peers who represent the Irish nobility. The number of peers 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 both of 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 nobles therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to support the throne; and, if that should fall, 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 lower house consists of such men of property in the kingdom as have not seats in the house of lords. In a free state, every man who is supposed a free agent ought to be, in some measure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at least of the legislative power should reside in the whole body of the people. In so large a state as ours, it is very wisely contrived that the people should do that by their representatives which it is impracticable to perform in person,—representatives chosen for 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. These representatives amount to 658, of whom 100 are deputed from Ireland, and 45 from Scotland. Every member, though chosen by one particular district, serves, when elected and returned, 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 give good advice to his majesty.

These are the constituent parts of the 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, except when it relates to their own privileges.

The power 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 the making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding, of laws, concerning matters ecclesiastical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal; this being the place

where that absolute despotic power, which must reside in all governments, is intrusted by the constitution of this kingdom. 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, alter and establish the religion of the land, change and create afresh even the constitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themselves. 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*. Yet its power, being given to it in trust, ought to be employed according to the rules of justice, and for the promotion of general welfare. 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, fortitude, and knowledge; for it was a known apophthegm of the great lord-treasurer, Burghley, "that England never could 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 fall upon it, the subjects of this kingdom are left without a legal remedy.

In order to prevent the mischief that might arise from the consignment of this extensive authority to incapable or improper hands, it is provided, that no one shall sit or vote in either house of parliament, unless he be twenty-one years of age. To prevent innovations in religion and government, it is enacted, that no member shall vote or sit in either house without having, 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.

The most important privileges of the members of both houses are those of speech and of person. It is declared by the statute of 1 William and Mary, 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." Their lands and goods were also privileged; but, in the year 1770, they condescended to renounce the right of securing their goods, in cases of debt, from legal distress or seizure.

Each peer has a right, by leave of the house, as being his own representative, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to explain and record his dissent, which is usually styled his protest. Upon particular occasions, 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 and indisputable privilege and right of the house of commons, that all grants of subsidies, or parliamentary aids, begin in their house, and be first bestowed by them, although even these grants are not effectual, to all intents and purposes, until they have the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. The general reason given for this exclusive privilege is, that the supplies are levied upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone should have the right of taxing themselves; and the com-

mons are so jealous of this privilege, that they will not permit the least alteration to be made by the lords in the mode of taxing the people by a money-bill: yet they are sometimes so complaisant as to adopt, in a new bill, the very amendment which they blamed the peers for introducing.

The mode of making a law is nearly the same 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 cannot properly be practised with us, at least in the house of commons, where the conduct of every member 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. 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 introduce the bill. In public matters the bill is brought in upon motion, 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.) This is twice read, and, after each reading, the speaker opens to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question whether it shall proceed. After the second reading, it is referred to a private committee, or (if the bill be of general importance) to a committee of the whole house. In the latter case, the speaker quits the chair (another member being appointed chairman,) and may sit and debate as an ordinary representative. In these committees, the bill is debated, clause by clause, and sometimes is entirely new-modeled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the house with the amendments: it is then reconsidered, and the question is repeatedly put upon every clause and amendment. The bill is then ordered to be engrossed on one or more long rolls of parchment, sewed together. Even at the third reading, amendments are sometimes made to it; and the speaker, holding it up to view, puts the question whether it shall pass. After this it is presented (usually by its original proposer) at the bar of the house of peers. If there passes through the same forms as in the other house; and, if it be rejected, no more notice is taken. But, if it be adopted, the lords send a message, importing that they have agreed to the same; and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it. When any amendments are made, they are sent down with the bill, to receive the concurrence of the commons. If this house should disapprove 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. 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 proposed, it is first signed by his majesty, and then read once only in each of the houses, without any alterations.

The royal assent may be given to a bill in two ways: 1. In person. When the king sends for the commons to the house of peers, the speaker carries up the money-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 sometimes ventures 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 the old Norman dialect. When the king consents to a public bill, the clerk declares, *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it so to be;" and, when the bill is of a private nature, *soit fait comme il est désiré*, "be it as it is desired." If assent be refused (a case which has not occurred in our times) the clerk makes use of this mild language, *le roy s'avisera*, "the king will consider of 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 loyaux sujets, accepte leur benevolence, et ainsi le veut*, "the king thanks his loyal subjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it so to be." In case of an act of grace, the clerk thus pronounces the gratitude of the subject: *les prelates, seigneurs, et commons, en ce present parlement assemblez, au nom de tous vos autres sujets, 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 in the high house, by commissioners consisting of certain peers named in the letters.

The bill thus enacted, is placed among the records of the kingdom, no formal promulgation being required 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 supposed to be present by his representatives. However, copies of it are usually printed at the king's press, for the information of the public.

From the above general view of the English constitution, it appears that no security for its permanence, 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 *felò 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, its innate powers have recovered and still preserve it.

The king of England, beside his high court of parliament, has subordinate officers and ministers, 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-counsellors during the life of the king who chooses them, but subject to removal at his pleasure.

The duty of a privy-counsellor appears from the oath of office, which consists of seven articles: 1. To advise the king according to the best of his knowlege and discretion. 2. To advise for the king's honor, 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, 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 be not sitting ; but this is considered as illegal, and an act of parliament must pass for the pardon and indemnification of those concerned. To prevent the necessity of an eventual application for a bill of indemnity, the ministers lately (in 1826) requested the two houses to grant, prospectively, the power of mitigating the rigor of the laws, respecting the importation of corn, if there should, during the recess, be any danger of a great advance of the price of that necessary article of consumption.

The office of secretary of state was formerly divided into a southern and a northern department, referring to the two grand divisions of Europe. 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 department of war and the colonies.

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-chancellor as minister ; but the affairs of his own court give him sufficient employment. When the office of first lord of the treasury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer in the same person, he is considered as first minister. The truth is, his majesty may make any one of his servants his first minister. But, though it is no office, there is a responsibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a post of difficulty and danger.

The lord chancellor 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 usually the speaker of the house of lords : he is a privy-counsellor by his office : he appoints 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 superintends all charitable uses in the kingdom.

The post of high treasurer, formerly a distinct employment, is now 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 which that great officer formerly enjoyed. 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.

It is the duty of the president of the council 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. This 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 great convenience of the subject, by an able president.

The keeper of the privy seal puts 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 great chamberlain of England 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 fitting up Westminster-hall for coronations, trials of peers, or impeachments.

The office of high constable has been disused since the attainder and execution of Stafford duke of Buckingham, in 1521; but it is occasionally revived for a coronation; as is also that of high steward, who likewise presides, *pro tempore*, at the trial of a peer or peeress for a capital crime.

In time of war, the earl-marshal was judge of military causes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cause did not admit such a decision, it was left to a personal combat, which was attended with a great variety of ceremonies; the arrangement of which, even to the smallest trifle, fell within the marshal's province. To this day he (or his deputy) regulates all points of precedence according to the archives kept in the heralds' office, which is entirely within his jurisdiction. He directs all solemn processions, coronations, proclamations, and general mournings.

The office of high admiral of England is now holden by commission, and is equal in 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 holden 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, from them, an appeal lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nature. All the proceedings of this court pass in the 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 practice of that 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.

COURTS OF LAW, AND LAWS.] The court of chancery 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 rigor of the law. The 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 chancellor, in any vacation, may grant a *habeas corpus*.

The king's bench—so called either because the king used to sit 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 the 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 may direct the chief justice to issue his warrant for apprehending persons under auspicion of high crimes.

In the court of common-pleas cognisance is taken of all pleas debatable, and civil actions depending, between subject and subject; and in it, beside all real actions, fines and recoveries are transacted, and prohibitions likewise issue from it, as well as from the king's bench. There are four judges belonging to this court; and only serjeants at law are allowed to plead in it.

The court of exchequer was instituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging according to law and equity. In the proceedings according to law, four persons act as judges, who are styled barons, because formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. But, when it proceeds according to equity, the lord-treasurer and the chancellor of the exchequer preside, assisted by the barons. All matters touching the king's treasury, revenue, customs, and fines, are here tried and determined.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, a high-sheriff is annually appointed by the king for every county, except Westmorland and Middlesex. His office is both ministerial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, and all writs directed to him by the courts of justice; to empanel juries; to bring causes and malefactors to trial; and to see sentence, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed. He is likewise to decide the elections of knights of the shire, and to judge of the qualifications of voters. As his office is judicial, he keeps a court called the county court, to hear and determine all civil causes under forty shillings. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by common law and special commission, he is the first man in the county, during his office; and he may call out the *posse comitatús*, or power of the county, when he is apprehensive of commotion or of danger.

The next officer to the sheriff is the justice of peace. Several of these magistrates are commissioned for each county: and to them is intrusted the power of putting a great part of the statute law in execution, with regard to the highways, the poor, felony, riots, the preservation of the game, &c.; and they examine and commit to prison all who break or disturb the peace. In order to punish the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when twelve men, forming the grand inquest of the county, inquire into all delinquencies, and state their opinions of the propriety of proceeding to trial, or of the expediency of dismissing the offenders. If the former be their decision, a true bill of indictment is said to be found.

Every city has a jurisdiction within itself, to judge in matters civil and criminal; with this proviso, that civil causes may be removed from its court to the higher courts at Westminster, and capital offences are committed to the judges of the assize. A mayor, aldermen, and burgeses, make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature. Some cities are counties, and choose their own sheriffs; and all of them have a power of making by-laws for their own government. In-

incorporated boroughs stand nearly on the same footing; and, for the better government of villages, the lords of the soil or manor have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet and courts-baron. The business of the former 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 by descent or purchase.

The business of a constable is to keep the peace. He can imprison persons who are quarrelling or rioting, until they are brought before a magistrate; and it is his duty to execute all warrants which are directed to him by one or more justices of the peace. Another officer is the coroner, who, with the aid of a jury, inquires into the mode in which persons, found dead, were deprived of life.

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, 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. The holiness of the matrimonial state is left entirely to the ecclesiastical law; the punishment, therefore, or annulment of incestuous or other unscriptural marriages, is the province of spiritual courts.

There are two kinds of divorce; one total, the other partial. The total divorce must be for some of the canonical causes of impediment, and those existing before the marriage; as consanguinity, affinity, or corporal 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 awards alimony to the wife, except when, for adultery, a total divorce is granted by the parliament.

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. For some felonies, and 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 with which a man is allowed to correct his servants or children; for whom the master or parent is also liable in some cases to answer. But, in the polite reign of Charles II., this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have security of peace against her hus-

band, or even a husband against his wife; yet the lower ranks of people 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 gross misbehaviour.

No other constitution is provided with so many fences as that of England is, for the security of personal liberty. Every man imprisoned has a right to demand a writ of *habeas corpus*; and if a judge, after considering the cause of commitment, should find that the offence is bailable, the person is immediately admitted to bail, until 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 obliged to pay damages to his subject. The ruling power cannot imprison the meanest individual, unless he has, by some illegal act of which he is accused upon oath, forfeited his right to liberty; or except when the state is in danger, and the representatives of the people think that the public safety makes it necessary to confine persons on suspicion of guilt; in which case, the *habeas-corpus* act is rendered nugatory by a temporary statute. 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 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. When jurors are named for a trial, the supposed offender may in open court peremptorily object to twenty or even more of the number, until at last twelve unexceptionable men, living near the place where the alleged fact was committed, are brought forward, 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." 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 who 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, until they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the prisoner. Every juryman is therefore vested with a solemn and awful trust; and, if he should join in condemning the prisoner without being fully convinced of his delinquency, he will entail upon himself the complicated guilt of perjury and murder.

It is much to be regretted that persons of education and property are often too ready to evade serving the office of juror. Thus 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 not to deserve that security and liberty which the inhabitants of England derive from this 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 republic of Venice, might take effect in its fullest latitude: "When the offence is committed by a nobleman against a subject," says he, "let all ways be tried to justify him; and, if that cannot easily be done, let him be chastised with greater noise than damags. If it be a subject who has affronted a nobleman, let him be punished with the utmost severity, that inferiors may not get 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, all imaginable indulgence is allowed even to the meanest offenders. 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 counsellors are allowed him: he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may set it aside, if it be contrary to law.

As trials in England are very different from those of other nations, the following account may be useful to foreigners, and to others who have not seen those proceedings.

The prisoner being 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 latter answer be given, the trial commences, even though the prisoner may 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. Formerly, when a prisoner refused to plead, that is, when he would not say in court whether he was *guilty* or *not guilty*, he was 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 their evidence, and the prisoner has, by himself or his counsel, cross-examined them, the judge recites to the jury the substance of the testimony, and bids them discharge their consciences: 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 doubts arise amongst the jury, they all withdraw into a room, with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up until they are unanimous; and, if any one of the jury should die during this confinement, the prisoner will be acquitted. When the jury have agreed, the prisoner is again brought forward to hear the 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.

When an offender is capitally convicted, the sentence of death, after a summary account of the trial, is pronounced by the judge in these words: "The law is, that thou shalt return to the place whence thou camest, and 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!" The sheriff is then charged with the execution.

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. By a law of Edward III., the traitor was punished by being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, when, after

being hanged for some minutes; the body was cut down alive, the heart taken out and exposed to public view, and the entrails burned; and the head was then cut off, and the body quartered. All the criminal's lands and goods were forfeited; his wife lost her dowry, and his children both their estates and nobility. But, though coining was adjudged high treason, the criminal was only drawn upon a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

Though the same sentence is pronounced upon all traitors, yet, with respect to persons of quality, the punishment is generally mitigated into simple decapitation. This is rather considered as a remission of the more horrible parts of the sentence, than as a different punishment. In the last executions for treason, the criminals were not taken down from the gallows before they were dead; and then their heads were cut off, and exhibited to the view of the gazing and shuddering throng.

The punishment for misprision of high treason—that is, for neglecting or concealing it—is imprisonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and of the profit 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. Women guilty of this crime, or of high treason, were sentenced to be burned alive; but this law has been repealed in our time; and the law now makes no difference between one murder and another.

Felony includes murder, robbery beyond the value of forty shillings, highway-robbery even to the smallest amount, and forgery. These crimes are all punished by hanging; only murderers are to be executed soon after sentence is passed, and then delivered to the surgeons for dissection. Persons guilty of robbery, when there are some alleviating circumstances, are generally condemned to hard labor, or transported for a term of years, or for life, to New South-Wales.

Manslaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a person without premeditated malice, is punished with imprisonment: but wounding or striking, with an intent to kill, is a capital offence, even if no serious injury be committed. Perjury subjects the offender to imprisonment; and petty larceny entails on the delinquent the disgrace of flagellation; but women are no longer exposed to that stigma.

RAVENUES OF THE } The king's ecclesiastical revenues consisted in
GOVERNMENT. } 1. the custody of the temporalities of vacant bishoprics; 2. allowances and pensions, formerly due to the king, from monasteries; 3. extra-parochial tithes; 4. the first-fruits and tenths of benefices. The second branch is necessarily extinct, for a reason which will be obvious to every reader; and the crown has relinquished the benefit of the rest. The king's ordinary temporal revenue consisted in, 1. the demesne lands of the crown; 2. the hereditary excise, being part of the consideration for the purchase of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption; 3. an annual sum issuing from 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, at the accession of George III., the parliament allowed 800,000*l. per annum*, and, at the commencement of the present reign, above a million sterling.

The extraordinary grants are usually called supplies, and are settled by the house of commons, who, when they have voted a supply to his majesty, resolve themselves into a committee of ways and means, to consider of the various modes of raising it. The taxes are—the land and malt-tax; the customs or commercial exactions; the excise, or inland impositions on a great variety of commodities; the post-office duty; the

stamps on paper, parchment, &c.; the duties on houses and windows; licenses for hackney coaches and chairs; and the duties on offices and pensions.

The produce of the ordinary revenue, in the year ending on the 5th of July, 1826, was about 47,300,000*l.*, including the imposts appropriated to the payment of the interest of the *national debt*;—a remarkable appendage of the established government, which now calls for our notice.

After the Revolution, when our increased connexions with the other powers of 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 the debt to an unusual degree; inasmuch that it was not thought advisable to raise all the supplies of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, lest the unaccustomed weight should excite serious discontent. It was therefore the bad and certainly unjust policy of the times to anticipate the revenues of 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 sum so borrowed; thus 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 at Florence, where, in 1344, a small public debt was formed into a fund with disposable shares at interest. Hence arose the *national debt*; for a few long annuities, created in the reign of Charles II., hardly deserve that name. At the end of king William's reign, the debt amounted to about fourteen millions; at the death of queen Anne, it had increased to fifty millions. When the unfortunate war broke out with the Americans, in 1775, about a hundred and thirty millions formed the total funded debt; and, when Mr. Pitt proposed his scheme of liquidation, in 1786; it was estimated at two hundred and thirty-nine millions. A small sinking-fund had been created in 1717; but it was soon misapplied, and rendered ineffective. By Mr. Pitt's plan, a million was annually assigned to the alleviation of the enormous burthen. This sum was raised by the addition of new taxes to the surplus of revenue; and the fund thus established was intended to accumulate in the ratio of compound interest. When the subsequent war with France had occasioned the rapid formation of a new debt, which, early in the year 1797, had risen to 130,665,000 pounds, a new fund of gradual liquidation was formed by deductions from the successive loans; and thus, for a long course of years, with a short intermission, the government continued to borrow, spend, and save. In 1804, the debt was so far augmented as to reach the amount of 583 millions, of which, however, above 98 millions were ostensibly redeemed. At the beginning of the year 1818, the magnitude of encumbrance was far more terrific; for about 776,700,000 pounds appeared to be the grand total, exclusive of an unfunded debt of 66,680,000 pounds. But the debt has since been in some degree diminished, and the taxes in various instances reduced.

[PUBLIC COMPANIES.] The company of the Bank of England was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of William and Mary, by the name of the Governor and Company of the Bank of England, in consideration of the loan of 1,200,000*l.* granted to the government; for which the subscribers received almost 8 per cent. By

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this charter, the directors were not allowed to borrow under their common seal, unless by act of parliament; they were not to trade, or suffer any person in trust for them to trade; but they might deal in bills of exchange, in buying or selling bullion, and foreign coin.

By a new act, they were empowered to enlarge their capital to 2,201,170*l.* 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 the purchase or sale of it, 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.

It was always understood, that the bank ought not to issue more notes than that amount for which it had cash to answer; but, in 1797, its inability of giving specie, in return for offered notes, greatly alarmed the public, and led to a parliamentary inquiry, the result of which was a demonstration of its solvency and security; and, indeed, its stability must be coeval with that of the 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 rival it. 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 various taxes. 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 Amsterdam and Hamburg.

EAST-INDIA COMPANY.] This company was instituted, in the reign of Elizabeth, for the direction and management of the rising trade with the East-Indies. It soon began to flourish, and the dividends upon its stock were sometimes very considerable: but, in the reign of James II., the king's partiality for the African trade, the losses which the company had sustained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of India, damped the ardor of the people to support it; so that, at the time of the Revolution, it was far from being in a prosperous state. As it had no parliamentary sanction, its stock was 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 the new subscription prevailed; and the subscribers, advancing two millions to the public at 8 per cent., obtained an act in their favor. 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 companies arose, that in 1703 they were united. In consequence of various loans to the state, the company repeatedly procured a prolongation of the right of exclusive trade. In 1730, when its privileges were extended for thirty-three years, the interest of its capital, which then amounted to 3,190,000*l.*, was reduced to 3 per cent. That fund is 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 trade. 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.

By occasional purchase, by gradual and systematic encroachment, and

by interfering in the wars of the native powers, the company acquired a great extent of territory, and a consequent increase of trade; and, as its establishment seemed to be an *imperium in imperio*, or to involve a degree of authority which encroached on the more legitimate claims of the state, the parliament thought proper, in 1773, to render it more dependent and controllable. Ten years afterward, when the misconduct of the directors and servants of the company seemed to threaten the establishment with ruin, Mr. Fox endeavoured to remedy the disorder by a bill which would have transferred the supremacy of British India to himself and his friends. This bill was approved by the commons; but strong opposition was made to it in the house of lords, as placing too dangerous a power in the hands of a party, which would be sure to operate against the legitimate authority of the crown; and, after long debates, it was thrown out by a majority of sixteen peers.

By Mr. Pitt's bill of settlement, which was substituted for the abortive scheme of Mr. Fox, six persons were nominated by the king as commissioners for the affairs of India. This board was to superintend, direct, and control, all acts, operations, and concerns, which related to the civil and military government or revenues of the British territories in that part of the world. The directors were required to deliver to the commissioners all minutes, orders, and resolutions of themselves, and of the court of proprietors, and copies of all letters, orders, and instructions, proposed to be sent abroad, for their approbation or alteration. They were allowed to appoint the servants abroad; but the king had a power, by his secretary of state, to recall any one of the governors or members of the councils, or any person holding an office in the settlements, and make void the appointment. This bill also gave, to the governor and council of Bengal, a control over the other presidencies, in all points which related to any transactions with the country powers, to peace and war, or to the application of their forces or revenues; but even that council was 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 from England.

Some years after this arrangement, the capital of the company was allowed to be raised to five millions; and, in 1793, the monopoly was qualified by the permission of private traffic under certain restrictions. At the same time the parliament obliged the company to contribute 500,000 pounds per annum to the exigencies of the state. With regard to the progress of the trade, it may be observed, that the sale of tea, silk, piece-goods, salt-petre, spices, drugs, and other articles imported from the East, which, for sixteen years prior to 1757, had scarcely exceeded the annual average of two millions, nearly amounted in 1806 to nine millions, the private trade being included. This favorable prospect, however, was clouded by the increase of the company's public debt, arising from frequent wars, and from the excess of expenditure, in the various establishments, above the revenue.

When a renewal of the monopoly was solicited, in 1812, the parliament listened to the public voice, rather than to the suggestions of the directors, and opened the trade with India to all merchants and speculators; but the commerce with the Chinese empire was still left exclusively to the company, which obtained, for twenty years, a continuance of territorial power.

SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.] During the long war with France in the reign of queen Anne, the sailors of the royal navy were obliged by their necessities to sell the tickets, given to them for future payment, at a

discount of 40*l.* and sometimes 50*l.* per cent. By this and other means, the unfunded debts of the nation, which amounted to 9,471,325*l.* fell into the hands of usurers. Mr. Harley proposed a scheme to allow the proprietors of these debts and deficiencies 6*l.* per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them under the title of The Governor and Company of Merchants of Great-Britain trading to the South-Seas. Though this company seemed formed for the sake of commerce, 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 for furnishing the Spaniards with negroes. Some other sums were lent to the government in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third year of George I. the interest of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent., and the company advanced two millions more to the government at the same interest. It was declared by statute, that this company might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in consideration of which, the directors were empowered to augment their capital according to the sums they should discharge, and indeed to raise such sums as in a general court might be judged necessary: but it was declared, that, if they should purchase lands or revenues of the crown on 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, they should forfeit three times the value.

The mischievous South-Sea scheme, transacted in 1720, was executed upon the last-mentioned statute. The company had set out with good success; and his majesty, after purchasing 10,000*l.* stock, had condescended to be the ostensible governor. Things were in this situation, when the South-Sea bubble was projected; the pretence 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, and the profits that were to arise from it, were divided into shares or subscriptions; 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 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.

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 give up 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 wish to turn their stock into cash.

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 distant time, a certain quantity of stock; against which time they endeavour, according as their contract is, either to raise or lower such stock, by spreading rumors and fictitious stories, in order to induce people either to sell out in a hurry, and consequently at a low rate, 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 do not in general possess any real stock; and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity for which they have contracted, they only receive or pay such a sum of money as makes the difference between the price which the stock bore when they made the contract and the present price. Hence it is no uncommon thing for persons not worth 100 pounds to make contracts for buying or selling 100,000 pounds of stock. 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.

While the annuities, and interest for money advanced, are regularly paid, and the principal ensured by both prince and people (a security rarely found among 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 strongest security,—the united interest of the prince and the people.

MILITARY AND MARINE FORCE } In a land of liberty it is extremely
OF GREAT-BRITAIN. } dangerous to make a distinct order
of the profession of arms. In fact, no man ought to take up arms, but with a view to the defence of his country and its laws: a freeman does not, when he enters the camp, relinquish the character of the citizen; 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 this realm know no such state as that of a perpetual soldiery, bred to arms alone; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had even a guard about their persons. In the mean time, however, the kingdom was not left wholly without defence, in case of domestic insurrections, or the prospect of foreign invasion. Beside 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 an act of Philip and Mary, into others of more modern service; but 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 set in military order the inhabitants of every district; and the form of the commission was settled

in parliament in the fifth year of Henry IV. But at the same time it was provided, that the persons thus levied should neither be compelled to leave the kingdom, nor even be withdrawn without urgent necessity out of their particular counties. In the reign of Henry VIII. lord-lieutenants began to be introduced, as standing representatives of the crown, to keep the counties in a military attitude.

Soon after the restoration of king Charles II., when the feudal 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 that body, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military subordination. A certain number of the inhabitants of every county are chosen by ballot, and are 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 rigors of martial law. 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 to be essentially necessary to the safety and prosperity of the kingdom.

But, as the mode of keeping a standing army has prevailed over all Europe in late years, it has also for many years past been annually judged necessary by our legislature, for the safety of the kingdom, and the preservation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a standing body of armed men, under the command of the crown; who are, however, disbanded at the expiration of every year, unless continued by parliament. The troops on service in the year 1804, according to the statement of the secretary at war (Mr. Yorke), consisted of 20,324 regular cavalry, 133,267 infantry, 87,652 militia, 26,000 of the army of reserve, and 14,200 men connected with the artillery; so that the actual force of the united realm amounted to 281,443 men, exclusive of 400,000 volunteers, who had taken arms for the defence of their endangered country. A knowledge of the existence of this great force concurred with the danger of sending out a navy, to deter the French from attempting an invasion of our island. The regular army received occasional augmentations in subsequent years; and, even after the restoration of peace, 150,000 men (including the British portion of the military occupants of France) were not considered by the parliament as an exorbitant levy. In 1818, however, the ministry so far complied with the wishes of the people, as to reduce the regular force to 113,640 men. In 1820, it exceeded 122,000; and it has since remained nearly at the same amount.

The maritime state, while it is closely related to the military service, is more agreeable to the principles of our constitution. The 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 arm, from which, however strong and powerful, no danger can be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it received great attention even in the Saxon times. The Anglo-Norman kings also cultivated this branch of the service; and it may be mentioned, as a proof of the naval reputation of the English, that the laws of Oleron, compiled by Richard I., were adopted by most of the nations of Europe as the ground of all their marine constitutions. Yet, so 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 a matter of boast that the royal navy of England consisted of 33 ships. The present excellence of our marine may, in a great measure, be attributed to the salutary provisions of the Navigation

Act; the rudiments of which were first framed in 1650, partly with a narrow view; being intended to mortify the West-Indian subjects of the republic, who were disaffected to the parliament, 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 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 than 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, with this material improvement, that the masters and three fourths of the mariners should be English subjects.

In the reign of James II. the royal navy, from the highest to the lowest rate, consisted of 173 vessels: in the next reign, they amounted to 270: in 1762, about 340 formed the aggregate number; in 1801, they were calculated at 787; and, during the war which terminated in 1815, so great was the augmentation, that the number rose to 1000, of which 550 were ships of the line and frigates: but it must be observed, that this computation includes those ships which were under repair, such as were upon the stocks, and ships used for prisons and hospitals; and that, out of 210 ships of the line, completely built, not more than 120 were actually serving against the enemy. On the return of peace, only 40 ships, from the first to the fifth rate, were kept in commission, and 64 of the sixth rate: but about 490 vessels of all descriptions remain in ordinary, as it is termed, so as not to require much time to bring them into actual service.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The title of the king, 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 king of England was formerly his or her Grace, or Highness, until Henry VIII., to put himself on a footing with the emperor Charles V., assumed that of Majesty. The title of Defender of the Faith, above-mentioned, was given to the same monarch by the pope, on account of a treatise which he had written against Luther and the Reformation.

Richard I. annexed to the royal arms the motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right* [will defend or protect me], to show his independence upon all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he claimed the crown of France. Almost every king of England had a particular badge or cognisance. The white rose was the bearing of the house of York, while that of Lancaster adopted the red.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD, TITLES.] The order of the Garter, the most honorable of any in the world, was instituted by Edward III. in 1344. It consists of the sovereign, and 25 companions, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, supposed to be the tutelr saint of England, commonly enameled on gold, suspended from a blue riband. The garter, which is of blue velvet, bordered with gold, buckled under the left knee, was designed as an ensign of unity and combination; on it are embroidered the words, *Honi soit qui mal y pense*, "Accursed or confounded may he be who evil thinks."

Knights of the Bath, for many reigns, were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or on other solemn occasions. They wear a scarlet

riband hanging from the left shoulder, with an enameled medal, the badge of the order, a rose issuing from the dexter side of a sceptre, and a thistle from the sinister, three imperial crowns being placed within the motto, *Tria juncta in uno*, "Three joined in one." This order, being discontinued, was revived by George I. in 1725.

The origin of the English peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. The titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons.

Baronets enjoy the only hereditary honor under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the Garter, if the latter were not always privy-counsellors, there being no intermediate honor between them and the parliamentary barons of England. They were instituted by James I. in 1611.

A knight 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 knighthoods formerly took place in England; such as those of bannerets, bachelors, knights of the carpet, and the like; but they are now disused.

The title of esquire formerly denoted any person, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but it is at present applied 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 the 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. Serjeants at law, justices of the peace, doctors in divinity, law, and physic, take place of other esquires. The appellation of gentleman, though now bestowed with little discrimination, is the root of all English honor; for every nobleman is presumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

RELIGION.] While we dismiss, as mere fiction, the stories of the predication of the Gospel in this island by St. Paul, St. James, Simon Zelotes, and Joseph of Arimathea, we have some authority for asserting, that, about the year 150, a great number of Britons professed the Christian faith. From that period, Christianity advanced its benign and salutary influence among the inhabitants; and, in the reign of Constantine, it became the established religion of the state. It fled into Wales with the harassed Britons, when the pagan Saxons had erected their heptarchy. At length the invaders inbibed the evangelical doctrines from some papal missionaries; and a hierarchy was gradually established. The Romish corruptions made as great progress in this country as in other parts of Europe; and ages of superstition seemed to cement the fabric of spiritual authority. The memory of Wickliffe, who flourished in the reign of Richard II., is entitled to our esteem; for he was the first person in Europe who publicly called in question, and boldly refuted, those doctrines which had been current during so long a period. But the time of reform had not then arrived. The effectual exposure of error was reserved for Luther, whose pious endeavours led to the triumph of protestant orthodoxy. The Reformation, promoted by the violence of Henry VIII., was established by the prudence and spirit of his daughter Elizabeth; and our church then assumed that form which it still retains.

The constitution of the Anglo-Saxon church was episcopal, and the benefices of the bishops 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 the tithes are impropriated, or vested in the laity. The oeconomy of the church of England has been accused for the inequality of its livings; some of them extending from two hundred to four thousand pounds *per annum*; and many, particularly in Wales, being too small to maintain a clergyman, especially if he has a family, with tolerable decency; but this cannot easily be remedied, unless the dignified clergy would adopt and support a scheme of reformation. The bounty of queen Anne, and the deduction of the first-fruits of benefices, beside recent parliamentary grants, have contributed, though in a small degree, to the augmentation of poor livings.

The church of England is governed by twenty-six prelates, whose revenues have been highly augmented by the remarkable rise in the value of those lands which were originally annexed to the foundations. The archbishop of Canterbury 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. Beside his own diocese, he has under him the bishops of London, Winchester, Ely, Lincoln, Rochester, Lichfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worcester, Bath and Wells, Salisbury, Exeter, Chichester, Norwich, Gloucester, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol: and, in Wales, St. David's, Llandaff, St. Asaph, and Bangor.

By the constitution and laws of England, the primate has such extensive powers, that, ever since the death of archbishop Laud, it has been deemed prudent to raise to that dignity men of very moderate principles: but they have generally been men of 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.

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, beside 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 examine and ordain priests and deacons, consecrate churches and burying-places, and administer the rite of confirmation. Their jurisdiction relates to the probaton of wills: they grant administration of the goods of such as die intestate, take care of perishable goods when no one will administer, collate to benefices, grant institutions to livings, defend the liberties of the church, and visit their dioceses once in three years.

Next to the bishops are the deans and prebendaries of cathedrals; but it would perhaps be difficult to assign their utility in the church, farther than to add to the pomp of worship, and to make provision for clergymen of eminence and merit, though interest often prevails over merit in the appointment. The archdeacons visit the churches every year; but their offices are less lucrative than they are honorable. 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 ostensibly lodged in the convocation, which is a national representative body or synod. This assembly, in the reign of queen Anne, entered warmly into the disputes between the Whigs and Tories; and as the latter had the ascendancy

among the clergy, the former advised George I. to check the spirit of debate by a prerogation. Since that time, the convocation has only met *pro forma* at the opening of a new parliament.

The most ancient consistory of the province of Canterbury is the court of arches, to which all appeals in spiritual affairs or causes, from the judgement of the inferior courts, are directed. 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 have taken the degree of doctor of the civil law at Oxford or Cambridge; for the graduates of less respectable universities, or indeed of any other academical bodies, are invariably rejected. The prerogative court is that which grants probates of wills and letters of administration; and it also decides ecclesiastical and matrimonial causes. From the court of arches, an appeal lies to the delegates, who do not constitute a permanent court, but are occasionally appointed by the royal commission, two or more of the twelve judges being authorised to decide a particular cause with the aid of some civilians; and, when the delegates have pronounced their opinions, the dissatisfied party may demand a commission of review. Every bishop has also a court; and archdeacons have likewise their courts, 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 the conscience may approve. The wisdom of acknowledging the king as the head of the church is conspicuous, in checking all religious persecution and intolerance; 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 affect either conscience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had toward 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 farther 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 plan instituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of episcopacy, and an establishment of presbyteries for the government of the church. 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 independence of congregations, without any respect to doctrine; and, in this sense, almost all the *dissenters* in England are now *independents*. As to points of doctrine, a great and increasing number of presbyterians are Arminians, or votaries of free will. The *Baptists* also form a numerous class of dissenters. They do not believe that infants are proper subjects of baptism: and in the baptism of adults they practise immersion.

The *Methodists* arose about the year 1739, under the auspices of Mr. John Wesley, who had been regularly educated and ordained. Mr. George Whitefield also professed that methodical purity which gave rise to the appellation: but these pretended reformers did not long act in concert. Whitefield thought that the forms 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. Wesley preferred the doctrine of free-will to election and reprobation. He erected a tabernacle near Moor-fields, and had under him a considerable number of subordinate preachers, who submitted to their leader very implicitly, and made proselytes throughout the kingdom with great industry.

The sect of *Quakers* arose about the middle of the 17th century. They believe in the immediate influence of the Holy Spirit, and reject all forms in worship, even the sacraments of baptism and the Lord's supper. They declare against oaths, adhering literally to Christ's positive injunction, "Swear not at all;" and to war they have a rooted aversion. They disuse the names of the months and days of the week, as being in honor of the false gods of the heathens; and avoid 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 to sue each other at law; and they enjoin all to end their differences by speedy and impartial arbitration. 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. Upon the whole, they are an honest, upright, and moral sect.

Many families in England still profess the Romish religion. They are excluded by law from corporations, from the highest offices, and from parliamentary privileges. They have frequently attempted to procure a full admission to all the rights of British subjects; but, as they still retain their intolerant principles, and are still animated with the zeal of conversion, it is deemed unsafe and impolitic to trust them with power; and a government decidedly and constitutionally protestant cannot be blamed for securing itself against the eventual influence of such intruders.

Beside a variety of religious sects, England has also its free-thinkers; but that term has been used in very different senses. It has sometimes been used to denote opposers of religion in general, and of revealed religion in particular; 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 deists or infidels, there is reason to believe that they are much more numerous in some popish countries than in England. Christianity is so much obscured and disfigured by the fopperies and superstitions of the Romish 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 are therefore 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 favor 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. Alfred cultivated both, when barbarism

and ignorance overspread the greater part of Europe; and, even during the dark ages, some men occasionally appeared in England, who distinguished themselves by their writings or studies. Among the writers in the Anglo-Norman reigns, several historians may be named who united with their talents a respectable portion of learning, particularly the two monks of Malmesbury and Newburgh; and two poets may also be mentioned with praise; namely, *Hanville* and *Joseph of Exeter*. The reign of the third *Henry* was dignified with the appearance of that prodigy of learning and natural philosophy, *Roger Bacon*, who was the forerunner in science of 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 theology, philology, mathematics, physics, the flux and reflux of the sea, optics, geography, astronomy, logic, metaphysics, ethics, medicine, chemistry, and on the impediments of knowledge. The poets *Chaucer* and *Gower*, whose productions are read with pleasure even in the present age, flourished in the reigns of *Edward III.* and *Richard II.* Since the Reformation, England resembles a galaxy of literature; and it is only doing justice to the memory of cardinal *Wolsey*, though otherwise a dangerous and profligate minister, to acknowledge that his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to the complete 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. *Elizabeth* was 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*, we know not that he was distinguished by any particular acts of her munificence; but her parsimony was nobly supplied by her favorite the earl of *Essex*, the most elegant 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 in 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 *sir Francis Bacon* was by him created viscount *Verulam*, and 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, English learning is under obligations to *James*, 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, 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, if we consider his pecuniary difficulties, were astonishing. His favorite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that respect, and is said to have expended 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, now preserved at Oxford. Charles has been blamed for not patronising the poets of his time: but it is well known, that he increased the salary of his poet laureate, the famous Ben Jonson, from 100 marks to 100 pounds *per annum*, and a tierce of Spanish wine.

The public encouragement of learning and the arts suffered an eclipse, during the civil war 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 quietly followed their studies; and many works of great merit appeared even in those times of distraction.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly distinguished by the great proficiency made in natural philosophy, especially by the institution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of that branch of study; and, though he was irreligious, England never abounded more with learned and able divines than in his reign. He admired painting and poetry, but was more munificent to the former than to 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. This reign, 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, Wycherly, and Otway. The pulpit assumed greater majesty, a better style and truer energy, than it had ever known before. Classic literature recovered many of its native graces: and the drama luxuriantly flourished. Though England could not, under Charles, boast of a Jones and a Vandyrke, yet sir Christopher Wren introduced a more general regularity than had ever been known before in architecture. Nor was he merely distinguished by his skill as an architect: his knowledge was very extensive; and his discoveries in philosophy contributed much to the reputation of the 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 the sermons and dissertations of the English divines against popery, which, for strength of reasoning and depth of erudition, never were equaled 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 in his reign, merely by the excellence 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 Louis 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 other excellent writers both in verse and prose, need only 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 great liberty which the laws of England allow in speculative points, 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. George II. was no Mæcenas: yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the number of learned and ingenious men it produced. The episcopal bench was never known to be more respectably filled than 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 favor of the public generally supplied the coldness of the court. In the reign of George III., a great progress was made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy was instituted, and the annual public exhibitions of painting and sculpture were exceedingly favorable 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.

During the long reign of his late majesty, almost every branch of literature and of science was cultivated in England with ability and success; and even short accounts of the persons who then distinguished themselves by their learning, talents, or various merits and services, would fill a moderate volume. To the theological attainments of former ages, indeed, much could not be added, as the scriptural basis remained the same: yet the doctrines of the church were more clearly illustrated, and the concomitant interests of morality were more ably enforced. Natural philosophy was improved by an extension of the Newtonian system: a sedulous attention to chemistry was rewarded by various discoveries; and science was rendered instrumental in the improvement of many useful arts. Geology became a favorite study, and mineralogy was pursued with equal zeal. The different branches of the healing art were practised in more judicious modes, and with more general efficacy. History, being illuminated and dignified by acuteness of remark, more fully answered that definition which represents it as a species of philosophy, teaching by example. Poetry was more gorgeous, picturesque, and fanciful, than it had been in the time of Pope; but it seemed to decline in perspicuity and coherence, in elegance and in force. If the tragic drama did not then remarkably flourish, some excellent comedies were produced; and the varieties of miscellaneous literature afforded, to an increasing number of readers, a considerable fund of instruction, and a high degree of entertainment.

With regard to the present reign, it is sufficient to observe that the literary fame of the nation has not declined in our time, and that the fine arts have been cultivated with redoubled zeal and corresponding success. The king is a liberal encourager of *learning* and the *arts*. His institution of the Royal Society of Literature is a proof of the former assertion, and his arrangements for the formation of a gallery of painting and sculpture exemplify the latter remark.

UNIVERSITIES.] The 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 independence.

To Oxford belong nineteen colleges and five halls: the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the students chiefly maintain themselves. This city is supposed by some fanciful antiquaries 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." But there is no authority for concluding that any university existed on this spot before the reign of Alfred, who built three colleges, one for divinity, another for philosophy, and a third for grammar. That which is now particularly called University College, arose from his foundation; but the process of the work is not exactly known. The next college, in the order of time, was that of Balliol, founded, about the year 1268, by the father of the Scottish king. Walter of Merton, lord-chancellor of the realm, erected and endowed the third, in 1274. The liberality of the lord-treasurer Walter, bishop of Exeter, gave rise to another, in 1316. That of Oriel soon after arose, under the auspices of the almoner of king Edward II. Eglesfield, chaplain to Philippa of Hainault, founded Queen's College in 1340; and the next academical erection was that which is still called New-College, though it is now comparatively old. The fifteenth century produced Lincoln college, All-Souls, and Magdalen. Six colleges arose in the sixteenth century, namely, Brazen-Nose, Corpus-Christi, Christ-Church, Trinity, St. John's, and Jesus; those of Wadham, Pembroke, and Worcester, were founded in the sequel. The twentieth college was that of Hertford; but, as this foundation escheated to the crown some years ago, the spot on which it stood was granted to the society of Magdalen-hall. Those who partake of the endowments of the colleges are about 1000 in number: the independent members are much more numerous.

At Cambridge, the first collegiate erection was Peter-house, which Hugh bishop of E. founded in 1257: Clare-hall succeeded, in 1326: Pembroke-hall, Bene't or Corpus-Christi college, and Trinity-hall, quickly followed. Gonville-hall was founded in 1348; but, in consequence of additional buildings and endowments from Dr. Cay, it became Caius-college in the sequel. The munificence of Henry VI. was distinguished in 1441, by the foundation of King's-college, which is richly endowed, and celebrated for the beauty and majestic dignity of its chapel, built in the finest style of Gothic architecture. His queen exercised her liberality in a similar mode, but not in an equal degree, by founding an academical society which took its name from her splendid title. Catharine-hall arose from the bounty of Robert Woodlark, chancellor of the university. Dr. Alcock, bishop of Ely, converted the nunnery of St. Radegund, in 1496, into the college of Jesus; and Margaret, the mother of Henry VII., early in the sixteenth century, founded the colleges of Christ and St. John. A new erection was meditated by the duke of Buckingham, the unfortunate victim of cardinal Wolsey's ambition and malignity; but the lord-chancellor Audley carried the scheme into effect, and the structure was dedicated to St. Mary Magdalen. These foundations were eclipsed in 1540 by the lustre of a royal work; for Trinity college was then planned by Henry VIII. Those of Emmanuel and Sidney were organised in the reign of Elizabeth. Downing

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college is a recent foundation; and it is so constituted, as to be rather a convenient receptacle for men of reputed learning, than a place of education. The fellows and scholars at Cambridge are calculated nearly at 1100, exclusive of those students who entirely support themselves.

The senate-house at Cambridge is a most elegant edifice, executed in the Corinthian order. Trinity-college library is also a magnificent structure. The library of Bene't-college is not distinguished by architectural beauty; but it contains a valuable collection of ancient manuscripts, which were preserved at the dissolution of the monasteries.

LANGUAGE.] The English language is principally a compound of the Saxon and the French; the Saxon, however, predominates; and the words which 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 tongues of Gothic origin.

ANTIQUITIES.] The antiquities of England are either British, Roman, Saxon, Danish, or Anglo-Normannic. The chief British antiquities are those circles of stones which have been attributed to the times of the Druids. Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukely, 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 positions. 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 transverse 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 highways give us an idea of the civil as well as military policy of those conquerors. Their vestiges are numerous: one began at Dover, and ended at Cardigan; another passed from London through Lincoln; and a branch of it, from Pontefract to Doncaster, strikes out to the westward, passing through Tadcaster to York, and thence to Aldby. The remains of Roman camps are discernible in many counties of 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 found in different parts, that their chief officers lived in towns. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as

well as the public repositories, contain a vast number of Roman arms, coins, *fibule*, trinkets, and the like; but the most amazing monument of the Roman power in England is the wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts' wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at the mouth of the Tyne, and ending at Solway-frith. 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 fosse to the north, and a military highway to the south. There is also a fine remain of Roman antiquity, called Richborough castle, near Sandwich in Kent.

The Saxon antiquities in England consist chiefly of ecclesiastical edifices, and places of strength. The Danish erections in England are hardly discernible from the Saxon. Their camps are of a circular form and are generally built upon eminences: but their forts are square.

England abounds with Anglo-Normannic monuments, which we choose to call so, because, though the princes under whom they were raised were of Norman original, 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 restoration of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the old churches in the kingdom are more or less in the same taste. It is uncertain whether the artificial excavations found in some parts of England are British, Saxon, or Norman. That under the old castle of Reigate 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 hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the same rock; 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 has in many places fallen in.

HISTORY.] The first inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls or Celtæ, as we may conclude from the evident conformity in their complexions, language, manners, government, and religion.

When the island was invaded by Cæsar, about fifty-five years before the Christian æra, his pretended victories were incomplete and indecisive; nor did the Romans receive the least advantage from his two expeditions, but a better knowledge of the island than they had before. The Britons, at the time of his 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 a considerable time.

In their manner of life, as described by Cæsar and the best authors they were rude and uncivilised; but they certainly sowed corn, though they chiefly subsisted upon animal food and milk. Their clothing consisted of skins; they lived in wattled huts; and their fortifications were mere beams. 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 painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluish 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 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 Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius, forty-three years after the birth of Christ, undertook an expedition into this island. His conquests, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicea, though a woman, made noble stands against the Romans. The former was made prisoner, after a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors. Boadicea, being oppressed in a manner that disgraces the Roman name, and defeated, disdained to survive the liberties of her country. Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing South-Britain, carried his arms into Scotland, where his successors had no reason to boast of their progress, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the residence of the Romans in this island, they erected walls to protect the Britons from the invasions of the Caledonians, or Scots. They introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and under them the South-Britons were reduced to a state of vassalage, while the genius of liberty retreated to the northward, where the natives had made a brave resistance against these tyrants of the world. Though the southern Britons were unquestionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, we know of no struggle they made in later times, for their independence at home, notwithstanding the many 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 seem 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 from 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, they left Britain about the year 420.

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 force, ravaging all before them with irresistible fury. The poor Britons (like a helpless family deprived of its parent and protector), already subdued by their own fears, repeatedly had recourse to Rome, and sent over a 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. By the advice of Vortigern, the chief prince of South-Britain, they engaged two Saxon chiefs, Hengist and Horsa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. Those adventurers readily accepted the invitations of the Britons, whom

they relieved by checking the progress of the enemy. But their own country was so populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain were so agreeable and alluring, that they 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, they subdued, or drove into Wales.

Literature at this time in England was so rude, that we know little of its history. The Saxons were ignorant of letters; and public transactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards, a species of men whom they held in great veneration.

It does not fall within the design of this work to relate the history of every particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is sufficient to say, that the pope in the time of Augustin supplied England with about 400 monks, and that the popish clergy took care to keep their kings and laity in the most deplorable ignorance, always magnifying the power and sanctity of his holiness. Hence the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by priests and monks, who persuaded many of their kings either to shut themselves up in cloisters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finished their days. Some brave, wise, and able princes, however, flourished in those times. Ethelbert, king of Kent, and Ina, the West-Saxon, distinguished themselves as legislators: Edwin and Oswald, the Northumbrian princes, extended the fame of their policy beyond the limits of Britain; and Offa the Mercian, though his hands were stained with blood, exhibited dignity and elevation of character.

The heptarchy was in a disordered state, when, in the year 827, the generality of the Anglo-Saxons, weary of the tyranny of their petty kings, called to the throne Egbert king of Wessex, the eldest remaining branch of the race of Cerdic. On the submission of the Northumbrians, he became king of all England, that is, the land of the Angles. He died in 836, and was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf. By this time England had become a scene of blood and ravages, in consequence of the Danish invasions; and the king, after bravely opposing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome. His gifts to the clergy on this occasion were so prodigious, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they show his intellect to have been disturbed by his devotion. He divided his dominions between his sons Ethelbald and Ethelbert. The latter left the kingdom, in 866, to his brother Ethelred, in whose time the Danes became masters of the maritime parts. 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 many 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, by whose assistance he gave the Danes signal overthrows, till at last he recovered the kingdom, and obliged the enemy, who had settled in it, to swear obedience to his government.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raising a maritime power in England, by which he secured the coasts from future invasions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been destroyed 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 and a patron of learning, but an author; and he tells us, that, on 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 the English, for many ages after his death, were content with habitations constructed chiefly of wood. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may seem incredible; but he had merchants who traded in the jewels of India, and William of Malmesbury says, that some of their gems were repositied in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received, about the year 890, a full discovery of the coasts of Norway and Lapland, from one Ochter, who told him in his memorial, "that he sailed along the coast so far north as commonly the whale-hunters used to travel." He found faithful and useful allies in the two Scottish kings, his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald, against the Danes. He is said to have fought 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 was so completely amiable and heroic, that he was 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 son Athelstan. This prince greatly encouraged commerce, and ordained, that every merchant who had made three voyages on his own account to the Mediterranean, should be considered as equal to a thane or nobleman. He caused the Scriptures to be translated into the Saxon tongue. 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 unimportant: but Edgar, who mounted the throne in 959, revived the naval glory of England, and is said to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight kings, his vassals, while he sat at the helm. Although he was the slave of priests, particularly St. Dunstan, his reign was honorable to himself and happy to his people. He was succeeded in 975 by his eldest son Edward, who was barbarously murdered by his step-mother Elfrida, whose son Ethelred mounted the throne in 979. England, at this time, was over-run with barbarians; and the Danes by degrees became masters of the finest parts of the country. In the vain hope of checking their piracies, the king agreed to pay them 30,000*l.*, which he levied by way of tax: it was called *Danegeld*, and was the first land-tax in England. In 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 such an order was 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 into Normandy. Swein, dying suddenly, was succeeded by his son Canute the Great. Ethelred, returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, whence he invaded England with a great army, and obliged Edmund *Ironsides* (so called from his great bodily strength), Ethelred's son, to divide with him the kingdom. Edmund being assassinated, Canute succeeded to the undivided realm. He died in 1035, after having governed with ability for almost eighteen years. 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 being now called to the throne, Edward the

Confessor mounted it, though Edgar Atheling had the lineal right. On the death of the Confessor, in 1066, Harold, son to Godwin earl of Kent, had sufficient influence to procure the crown.

William, duke of Normandy, though of illegitimate birth, was then in the unrivaled possession of that duchy which had been wrested from the French, and resolved to assert his pretensions to the English crown, which, he said, had been bequeathed to him by Edward. 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 land and honors in England, to induce them to assist him effectually. By these means he collected about 60,000 men; and, while Harold was embarrassed with an invasion from the Danes, the Normans landed in England without opposition. The king, returning from the north, encountered William near Hastings, and a fierce conflict ensued, in which the English were totally defeated.

We have very particular accounts of the value of provisions and manufactures in those days: a palfrey cost 1*s.*; an acre of land 1*s.*; a hide of land, containing 120 acres, 100*s.*: a sheep was estimated at 1*s.*; an ox was computed at 6*s.*, a cow at 4*s.*, a man at 3*l.*; 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 literature, unskilful in the mechanical arts, and addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. But, amidst those defects, public liberty and personal freedom 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 number was on the side of the Norman; and, indeed, the death of Harold seems to have decided the day. William then 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 holden 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 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. He found it no easy matter to keep possession of his crown. Edgar Atheling and his sister were kindly received in Scotland; and many of the Saxon lords took arms, and formed conspiracies in England. The king, however, surmounted all difficulties, but not without exercising unjustifiable 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 was taken by the 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 Ed-

ward 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 Domesday-book, still extant. The repose of this prince was disturbed in his old age by the rebellion of his eldest son Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but began to act as an independent ruler of that province, with the aid of the king of France. William, seeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his usual vigor; and with incredible celerity transporting a brave English army into France, was every where victorious, but died before he had finished the war, in the year 1087, the sixty-fifth of his age.

The succession to the crown was disputed between the Conqueror's sons Robert and William (commonly called Rufus, from his red hair), and was carried in favor of the latter. He was a brave prince, but no friend to the clergy, who were therefore hostile 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 to the Holy Land began; and Robert, who was among the first to engage, accommodated his disputes with William for a sum of money, which he levied from the clergy. Rufus was accidentally killed, as he was hunting in the New-Forest in Hampshire, in the year 1100, the forty-third of his age.

He was succeeded by his younger brother, Henry I. (surnamed Beauclerc on account of his learning), though Robert was then returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be said to have purchased the throne; first, by the royal treasure, 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, niece to Edgar Atheling. 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 Robert's person and his duchy, and detained him a prisoner above twenty-seven years, until his death. He was afterward engaged in a bloody, but successful, war with France; and, before his death, he settled the succession upon his daughter Matilda (widow to Henry V. emperor of Germany) and Henry, her son by Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a surfeit, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, in 1135. He was able and politic, rather than humane or benevolent.

Notwithstanding the late settlement of the succession, the crown was claimed and seized by Stephen, earl of Blois, grandson of 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 other prelates. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle David, king of Scotland, and a brave and faithful friend in her natural brother Robert, earl of Gloucester, who headed her party. A long war ensued; and Stephen was defeated and made prisoner in 1141. 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; and, finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England. Stephen, when he was exchanged for the earl of Gloucester, who was also a prisoner, found that his clergy and nobility had in a great measure excluded him from the government, by building 1100 castles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. He attempted to

force⁴⁴ 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 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, it was received by the English with great joy; and, Stephen dying very opportunely, in 1154, Henry mounted the throne.

Henry II. was the greatest prince of his time. He soon manifested 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 to them in the struggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and still farther 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. This gave a vast accession of power to the crown, because the king alone could support the boroughs against their feudal tyrants; and it enabled Henry to reduce his overgrown nobility. 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 began 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 imposts. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the English church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man 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, where some constitutions were 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 until they could be ratified by the pope, who, as he foresaw, rejected them. Henry was then embroiled with the neighbouring princes; 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 a compromise with the rebel prelate, who returned in triumph to England. His return swelled his pride, and increased his insolence, until both became insupportable to the king, who, finding that he was in fact only the first subject in his own dominions, was heard to say, in the anguish of his heart, "Is there no one who will revenge his monarch's cause upon this audacious priest?" These words reached the ears of four knights, who, without apprising Henry of their intentions, went over to England, where they beat out the brains of the unfortunate prelate before the altar of his own church. The king 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 mur-

der, that he submitted to be scourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry distinguished his reign by the reduction of Scotland to a state of vassalage, and also 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, 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 1189, at the age of fifty-six years. 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 valor by many heroic acts. After several glorious but fruitless campaigns, he concluded a truce of three years with the sultan Saladin; and, as he was returning 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 potentate at 150,000 marks, about 300,000*l.* 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 he was slain while besieging the castle of Chalons in the year 1199, the forty-second of his age.

The reign of his brother John, who succeeded him, is infamous in the English history. He 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, king of France, who soon after deprived John of his Norman duchy. This monarch 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, he was at last brought so low, that the barons obliged him, in 1215, to sign the great deed so well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of English liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of those immunities which the barons and their followers had possessed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and his grand-son. 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 him, and transferred it to Louis, the eldest son of Philip Augustus. This gave offence to the pope; and the barons, being apprehensive of the subjection of their country to France, returned to their allegiance. John died in 1216, in the fifty-first year 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 empowered the citizens to choose a mayor out of their own body annually, and to elect their sheriffs and common-council, as at present.

England was in a deplorable state when the crown devolved upon Henry III., the late king's son, who was only 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, who had thus retrieved the independence of his country, died in 1219; and the regency devolved upon the bishop of Winchester. The king was of a feeble disposition, and had been persuaded to violate the Great Charter. Indeed he seemed always endeavouring to evade the privilege which he had been compelled to grant and confirm. A baronial association 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 Simon de 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 made 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, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Evesham in 1265, their leader falling in the field. Prince Edward being afterwards engaged in a crusade, Henry, during his absence, died in 1272, the sixty-sixth year of his age, and fifty-seventh of his reign.

For the parliamentary arrangements which gave lustre to a reign otherwise inglorious, we refer the reader to our sketch of the constitution. To the interested policy of Simon de Montfort, some attribute the rise of the house of commons.

Edward I. was a wise and able prince; and his regulations, and reformation of the laws, have justly given him the title of the English Justinian. He purified the judicial courts, and corrected gross abuses in the practice of the law. He passed the mortmain act, by which all persons "were restrained from giving, by will or otherwise, their estates to (those so called) religious purposes, and to the societies that never die, without a license from the crown." He gave greater freedom and dignity to the popular branch of the constitution, and improved, in various respects, the general state of the nation.

This prince was involved, by the ambition of Philip the Fair, in a war with France, and was deprived of the duchy of Guienne: but this loss was compensated by the subjugation of the whole principality of Wales. He also conquered Scotland, after having bestowed the disputed crown by arbitration upon John de Balliol: but the tyranny of his officers exasperated the people into a revolt, and Robert de Brus was proclaimed king. Edward resolved to chastise that prince; but death, in July 1307, put an end to all his schemes and enterprises.

His son and successor, Edward II., showed an early propensity to the encouragement of favorites. A Gascon, named Gavaston, who had been banished by the late king, was recalled by the new monarch, and loaded with honors. The barons insisted upon the re-expulsion of the arrogant and odious favorite: but, when the king had confirmed Magna Charta, he procured the consent of his nobles to the unmolested resi-

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dence of his friend in England. The king's renewed misconduct produced a confederacy against him; he was obliged to resign his power to a baronial committee, and his favorite was put to death.

The progress of Robert de Brus in Scotland roused Edward from his indolence; and he marched with a great army into Scotland; but, as he was unable to direct the operations of the troops, the enemy disgraced him by a signal defeat. He was now ruled by another favorite, Hugh le Despenser, against whom the earl of Lancaster and other noblemen rose in arms; but the insurgents were defeated, and their powerful and popular leader was capitally punished. As the king did not exercise his triumph with moderation, he forfeited the public favor, and, in 1327, fell a victim to the arts of an adulterous wife and the revengeful spirit of an incensed party. Being unsupported by the nation against the leaders of a new rebellion, he was taken while he was endeavoring to escape, and constrained to resign the crown, which was transferred to his son Edward, who was only in the fifteenth year of his age. His death soon followed: queen Isabella and Roger de Mortimer employed two ruffians to murder him in Berkeley-castle. He was a weak prince, and his government was capricious and arbitrary: but his intentions are allowed to have been good, and his memory is entitled to respect for his zeal in the encouragement of agriculture and commerce.

Edward III., during his minority, acquiesced in the sway of the queen-dowager, (Isabella of France) and Mortimer; but, when he had nearly completed his eighteenth year, he assumed the personal administration, confining his mother and putting her paramour to death. After governing for many years with ability, he entered into a war with France, pretending that he had a right to the crown of that kingdom, as the nephew of the three last kings. He had already distinguished himself by his warlike spirit in a brilliant campaign against the Scots; and he hoped to be equally fortunate against the French. In this contest, the difference between the feudal constitution of France (which then subsisted in full force) and the government of England, more favorable to public liberty, strikingly 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 considerable property to fight for, 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. At Creci, in August, 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated, chiefly by the valor of the prince of Wales, called from his armour the Black Prince, who was only in his seventeenth year. The loss of the French nearly equaled the amount of the English army, while the conquerors, who were about 32,000 in number, lost not a thirtieth part of their force. The battle of Poitiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with very superior advantage of number on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and whose sovereign and his favorite son Philip were made prisoners.

Edward's glories were not confined to France. His queen Philippa (daughter to the earl of Hainault) had the good fortune to capture the king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England. Thus Edward had the glory to see two crowned heads his captives at London. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which he 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 lost his popularity at home by his attachment to his mistress, Alice Perrers. Soon after the immature death of his illustrious son, the king died, dispirited and neglected, on the 21st of June, 1377, at the age of sixty-four years.

Edward was so attentive to the interest of his people, as to invite fullers, dyers, weavers, and other artificers, from Flanders; and he established the woollen manufacture among the English, who before his 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 he 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 him; and it is remarkable, that he assessed almost every county in England to send him a certain number of men for that great work.

Richard II., son of the Black Prince, was not eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. During his minority, the doctrines of Wickliffe, who opposed the errors of popery, took root under the influence of the duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the lower ranks of people. The duke's connexions 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, 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 labored under many oppressions.

Richard was not then fifteen; but he acted with great spirit and wisdom. He faced the storm at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler to death, in the midst of his adherents. Richard then resigned himself to the sway of favorites. The discontented barons took arms, and forced him into terms; but, being insincere in all his compliances, he was on the point of becoming more despotic than any king of England ever had been, when he lost his crown and life by a sudden catastrophe.

A quarrel having occurred between the dukes of Hereford and Norfolk, the king banished both peers, with particular acts of injustice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaster by his father's death; and, when he had transported a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a strong party formed itself in England, and offered the crown to the duke, who having landed from France at Ravenspur, was soon at the head of 60,000 men. Richard hurried back to England, where, his troops refusing to fight, and his subjects generally deserting him, he was made prisoner with no more than twenty attendants; and, being carried to London, was deposed in full parliament, in 1399, upon a formal charge of tyranny and misconduct; and soon after is supposed to have been starved to death in prison, in the thirty-fourth year of his age.

Though the nobility of England possessed great power at the time of this revolution, we do not find that it abated the influence of the commons. They had the courage to remonstrate boldly in parliament against various oppressions and grievances; and, if they did not meet with the desired success, they at least made some advances in dignity and consequence.

Henry the Fourth (son of John of Ghent duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III.) being settled on the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward's family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect in his title would render him 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 formed a plan for the humiliation of the aristocracy. This was understood by the Percy family, the greatest in the north of England, who complained that Henry had deprived them of some Scottish prisoners, whom they had taken in battle; and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his son Henry, surnamed Hotspur; but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valor of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune, Henry suppressed the insurrection of the Welsh, under Owen Glendower or Glynndourwy, and, by his prudent concessions to his parliament, he at last overcame all opposition. He died in 1413, in the forty-seventh year of his age.

The 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, and with the Hanse towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry was the first prince who gave to the commons their due weight in parliament. It is however 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 1401, for the burning of heretics, in consequence of the great increase of the Wickliffites or Lollards; and, immediately after, Sautre, a pious divine, was burned alive.

At the accession of Henry V., the Lollards were excessively numerous; and, lord Cobham having joined them, it was pretended that he had agreed to put himself at their head, with a view of overturning 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 offence was the spirit with which he opposed the superstition of the age.

The ambition of Henry engaged him in a contest with France. He demanded a restitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been taken from the English in the preceding reigns; and, availing himself of the dissensions between the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he first took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Azincourt, which equalled those of Creci and Poitiers in glory to the English. Being as great a politician as a warrior, he 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 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 ruined, had not the Scots furnished the dauphin with vast supplies, and preserved to him the French crown. Henry made a triumphal entry into Paris; and, after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might crush the dauphin. He probably would have been successful, had he not died of a pleuritic disorder, in 1422, in the thirty-fifth year of his age.

Henry's success 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 revenue of the crown during this reign, it appears to have

amounted only to 55,714*l.* a year, which is nearly the same with that of Henry III. The ordinary expenses of the government amounted to 52,507*l.*; so that the king had only 3,207*l.* for what is now termed the civil list. This sum was far from being 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.

Henry VI. was not nine months old when 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, who were princes of great accomplishments, but were unable to preserve their brother's conquests. On the death of Charles VI. the affection of the French for his family revived in the person of his son and successor. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at last laid siege to Orleans; but the siege was raised by the courage and good conduct of Joan of Arc. This extraordinary woman was a mere servant at an inn; but, conceiving herself to have been born for the rescue of the endangered monarchy, she boldly took arms, and led her countrymen to repeated victories. Being at length taken by the English, she was cruelly committed to the flames as a witch.

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 Henry's interest in France, and the loss of all his provinces in that kingdom. 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 indigent king of Sicily, a woman of a high spirit, and an implacable disposition; while the cardinal of Winchester, who was the richest subject in the kingdom, presided over the treasury, and by his avarice injured 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 descended by the mother's side from Lionel, the second son of Edward III., and had consequently a claim preferable to that of Henry. He lost no opportunity of forming a party to assert his right, but acted at first with profound dissimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favorite 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 decapitated on ship-board by a common sailor. This was followed by an insurrection of 20,000 Kentish men, headed by one Cade, who sent to the court a list of grievances; but he was defeated by the courage of the citizens of London, and the queen seemed to be perfectly secure against the duke of York.

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 more extensive landed property than any other subject; and his great abilities, joined to some virtues, rendered him highly popular. Both were partisans of the duke, who, during the king's temporary indisposition, was made protector of the realm. When the queen had again brought forward the royal puppet, the duke, perceiving that she aimed at his ruin, took up arms. The royalists were defeated at St. Alban's; and the king became a prisoner. The duke was once more declared protector; but it was not long before the queen resumed all her influence in the government.

The duke at length openly claimed the crown; and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick. A parliament being assembled,

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it was enacted that Henry should possess the throne for life, but that the duke should succeed him, to the exclusion of all Henry's issue. The queen refused to agree to this compromise; and, assembling a fresh army, she advanced to Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and slain, in 1460.

His son Edward prepared to revenge his death, and obtained several victories over the royalists. The queen, however, proceeded toward 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 the city, in which the young duke was favorably received and proclaimed king, in 1461. Margaret soon raised another army, and a battle ensued at Towton. After prodigies of valor had been performed on both sides, the victory remained with young Edward, and 35,000 men lay dead on the field of battle.

After a respite of some years from the horrors of civil war, Margaret and her husband, who had received protection in Scotland, returned with an army into England: but she was still unfortunate in her martial enterprises. The Lancastrians were routed at Hexham; the queen passed over to the continent; and Henry was sent to the Tower. Jealous of the overgrown power of the Warwick family, the new king resolved to take every opportunity of humbling the earl's pride and presumption; and he was encouraged in that resolution, if not originally instigated to such measures, by the suggestions of lady Grey of Groby, whom he had lately married, and to whose father and brothers he gave his full confidence. He first attacked the earl in the person of his brother the archbishop of York, whom he abruptly deprived of the chancellorship. Warwick was then accused of a treasonable correspondence with Margaret; but the charge was quickly abandoned. His partisans excited an insurrection, in which the father of the new queen was put to death by the revolvers. Another rebellion soon followed, which was still more evidently produced by the earl's instigation, after one of his brothers had been compelled to relinquish the earldom of Northumberland. Warwick at length openly revolted; and his great military preparations alarmed the king, that he fled with a small retinue to the continent. The earl now replaced Henry on the throne, in 1470; but Edward, being invited to return by his brother the duke of Clarence, who promised to desert the potent *king-maker*, re-appeared in England, and defeated and slew his great opponent in the battle of Barnet. He also triumphed at Tewkesbury over Margaret, whose captive son Edward was coolly murdered by some of the courtiers. He gave orders (as we have reason to believe) for the death of Henry; and, even amidst the tranquillity of his subsequent sway, affecting to dread the machinations of the duke of Clarence, he commanded him to be privately put to death. This monarch, partly to amuse the public, and partly to supply the expenses of his court, pretended sometimes to quarrel and sometimes to treat with the French king, who even allowed him a pension; but his irregularities brought him to his death, in the year 1483, the forty-first 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 of preserving to the English the benefit of being the sole carriers of their own merchandise; but foreign influence prevented Henry from passing a bill to that purport. The

invention of printing, which was 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 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 rendered herself unpopular by her fidelity to her obscure relatives. Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle, the duke of Gloucester, taking advantage of the queen's want of favor among the nobility, found means to bastardise her issue, by act of parliament, under the pretence 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, having first put to death the men of rank whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether the young king and his brother were murdered in the Tower, by his direction, is doubtful. Some have supposed 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 so strongly prepossessed against Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that Henry earl of Richmond, a descendant of the house of Lancaster, was encouraged to invade England at the head of about 2000 foreigners, who were soon joined by 7000 English and Welsh. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, ensued at Bosworth-field, in which the king, after displaying astonishing acts of personal valor, lost his life, 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 Edward IV., no disputes were raised upon the legitimacy of Elizabeth, his eldest daughter, who was now married to the earl of Richmond, Henry VII.,—an auspicious union, which happily put an end to the war between the families 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 the guard called *Yeomen*; and, while he thus secured himself, he curbed the power of the barons by limiting the number of their dependents, and abolishing that practice 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.

After the suppression of insurrections in England and Ireland, Henry interfered in the politics of the continent. When he had tamely suffered Charles VIII. of France to gain possession of Bretagne, he undertook an expedition against that monarch, but was soon pacified by a

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bribe. He was now attacked in the possession of his throne by Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York, second son of 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 appears 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 young Edward and his brother, but never did it to the public satisfaction. Perkin, after various adventures, fell into the king's hands, and was sent to the Tower, whence he endeavoured to escape with the innocent earl of Warwick; for which both were put to death.

In 1499, Henry's eldest son Arthur was married to Catharine of Arragon. On the death of that prince, such was the king's unwillingness to refund her great dowry (200,000 crowns of gold), that he consented to her being married to his second son, on pretence that the first match had not been consummated. Soon after, his daughter Margaret was sent to Scotland, where she was married to James IV.

Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the fifty-third year of his age, is said to have possessed 1,800,000*l.* sterling, equivalent to nine millions at present; so that he may be supposed to have been master of more ready money than all the kings in Europe beside possessed. 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. His parsimony would not suffer him to accept the offer of Columbus; but he made some compensation to his subjects, for this instance of illiberality, by encouraging Cabot, a Venetian, who discovered the continent of North-America; and we may observe, to the praise of this monarch, that sometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants sums of money without interest.

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 that 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 France. These projects led him into incredible expenses. He became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy: but soon resigned his pretensions. In the hostilities which arose between Francis I. of France and the emperor Charles V., his conduct was directed by the views of cardinal Wolsey upon the popedom, which the ambitious minister hoped to gain by the interest of Charles; but, finding himself twice deceived, he persuaded his master to declare for Francis.

Henry was at first the great enemy of the Reformation, and the champion of the Romish church. He wrote a book against Luther, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*. But, about the year 1527, he began to have some scruples 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 conscience, or aversion to the queen, or the charms of the famous Anne Boleyn, whom he married before he could obtain from Rome the proper bulls of divorce from the pope. The difficulties which occurred in this process

ruined Wolsey, who died heart-broken, after being stripped of his immense power and possessions.

Pride and resentment, rather than judgement or good sense, prompted 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. He could not have effected this important change, if he had not, by the violence of his disposition, and by taking advantage of religious dissension, over-awed his parliamentary subjects into servility. Upon a slight suspicion of his queen's infidelity, and after a mock trial, he sacrificed her to his brutal caprice, and put to death some of her nearest relatives; and in many respects he acted in the most arbitrary and cruel manner. The dissolution of the religious houses, and the great wealth which he acquired by seizing ecclesiastical property, 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 the fall of some illustrious victim of his tyranny.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, who 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. His fifth queen was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whom he caused to be beheaded for ante-nuptial incontinence. His last wife was Catharine Parr, in whose possession he died, after she had narrowly escaped being brought to the stake for her religious opinions, which favored the Reformation. Henry's cruelty increased with his years, and was now exercised promiscuously on protestants and catholics. He put the brave earl of Surrey 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, in 1547, in the 56th year of his age.

The state of England, during Henry's reign, is, by the means of printing, better known than that of his predecessors. His attention to the naval security of England was highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed his arbitrary power, in some 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 his personal crimes or failings might have been, the partition he made of the property of the church among his courtiers and favorites, by rescuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted the present greatness of England. Of learning and the arts Henry was a liberal patron. He gave a pension to Erasmus, the most learned man of his age. He invited 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 Craumer: and though he was, upon the whole, rather whimsical than settled in his own principles of religion, he advanced many who became afterward the instruments of a more pure reformation. No considerations, however, can excuse the atrocious and multiplied cruelties which he committed, under the forms of perverted law.

In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in English. Wales was incorporated with England, and Ireland was erected into a kingdom.

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death; and after some disputes the regency was settled in the person of his uncle, the earl of Hertford, afterward duke of Somerset, a declared friend and patron of the reformed faith. 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 the monasteries, and ejected from their small corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often pacified by the government; and several of these insurrections were crushed in this reign. The new system, however, proceeded rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer and others. In some cases, they lost sight of that moderation which the reformers had before so strongly recommended; and some cruel executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuses him from blame; and his charitable endowments, as Bridewell and St. Thomas' 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 16th year of his age.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconstitutional will; for he set aside Mary, Henry's daughter, by Catharine of Arragon, from the succession, which, at the instigation of the ambitious duke of Northumberland, who had brought the protractor Somerset to the block, was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to a niece of Henry VIII. This lady, though she had scarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the nation recognised the claim of Mary, and Jane was beheaded. Her husband, lord Guildford Dudley, also suffered death.

Mary, being thus seated on the throne, suppressed an insurrection under Wyatt, and proceeded like a female Fury to re-establish popery. She recalled cardinal Pole from banishment, made him instrumental in her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of persecution, in which archbishop Cranmer, the bishops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer, and many other illustrious confessors of the English reformed church, were consumed, beside a great number of other individuals of both sexes and all ranks. The bishops Bonner and Gardiner were the chief executioners of her bloody mandates; and, had she lived, she would probably 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 independence of the English crown. By the assistance of troops which she furnished to her husband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was so ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guise, soon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the English in France. This loss is said to have broken the heart of Mary, who died in 1558, in her forty-third year. "In the heat of her persecuting flames (says a contemporary writer of credit) were burned to ashes, 1 archbishop, 4 bishops, 21 divines, 8 gentlemen, 84 artificers, and 100 husbandmen, servants, and laborers; 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 Scotland, grandchild to

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Henry VII.'s eldest daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally she had on the continent was Philip, who was the main support of the popish cause, both abroad and in England. She 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, the royal supremacy was restored, and an act of uniformity passed; and it is observed, that, of 9400 beneficed clergymen in England, only 150 refused to comply with the Reformation. With regard to her title, she took advantage of the divided state of Scotland, and formed a party, by which Mary was obliged to renounce, or rather to suspend, her claim. Not content with this, she 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 an honorable asylum had often been promised to her. It is well known how unfaithful the queen 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, put her to death—an action which greatly tarnished the glories of her reign.

Philip had offered to marry the queen; but she dexterously avoided his addresses; and, by a train of skillful 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 a regular government 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 the other of them should be her husband; by which she kept that court, which dreaded Spain, at the same time in good humor 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 fleet 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 only 53, out of 130 ships, recovered their ports. Next to the admiral, sir Francis Drake, and the captains Hawkins and Frobisher, distinguished themselves against this formidable invasion, in which the Spaniards are said to have lost 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for some time supported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip, and had sent them her favorite, the earl of Leicester, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though her representative did not display judgement or ability, her measures were so wise, that the Dutch established their independence; and then she

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sent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant 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 ordered him to be decapitated. She complained that she had been betrayed into this sanguinary measure; and this occasioned a depression of spirits, which brought her to her grave in 1603, in the seventieth year of her age, when she had 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 from 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 weary of Elizabeth's sway, than the joy testified by all ranks at the accession of her successor, notwithstanding the inveterate animosities between the kingdoms. James was far from being destitute of natural abilities for government; but he had received erroneous impressions of the regal office, and formed too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the English throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconstitutional powers that had been exercised by the house of Tudor, and which various causes had prevented the people from opposing with proper vigor. The nation had been nearly 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 disguised her most arbitrary acts, or for the free, liberal sentiments, which the improvement of knowledge and learning had diffused through England. It is unnecessary to point out the vast increase of property through trade and navigation, which enabled the English at the same time to defend their liberties. The king's first attempt of great consequence was to effect an union between England and Scotland; but, though he failed in this through the prejudices of the English against the Scots, 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,—a plot of the Romanists for the sudden destruction of the king and the assembled lords and commons. His pacific reign was a series of contrivances to raise money (by monopolies and other means), and also of contests with casuists, in which he proved himself more a theologian than a prince. In 1617 he attempted to establish episcopacy in Scotland; but the zeal of the people baffled his design.

He gave his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, in marriage to the elector Palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, who 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, and that, had he kindled a war to re-instate him, he probably would have stood single in the cause, or would have been very feebly assisted: yet he furnished the elector with money and troops.

James has been greatly and justly blamed for his partiality to favorites. His first was Robert Carr, a North-Briton, who was raised to be prime minister and earl of Somerset. His next favorite was George Villiers, who, upon Somerset's disgrace, was admitted to an unusual share of regard 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. On the death of his eldest son, Henry prince of Wales, he threw his eyes upon the infanta of Spain as a proper wife for his son Charles. Villiers, who was equally a favorite with the son and the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humor; and, against the king's will, they traveled in disguise to Spain, where a most solemn farce of courtship was played: but the prince returned without his expected bride. After an inglorious but not disastrous or unfortunate reign of twenty-two years, James died in 1625, in the 59th year of his age. He 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.

Charles I. was unfortunate in his marriage with the princess Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France. 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 Villiers, duke of Buckingham, and of his own despotic temper, that the parliament was remiss in furnishing him with money for carrying on the war. The duke persuaded Charles to espouse the cause of the Huguenots. They were, however, so ill supported, though Charles was sincere in his intention to serve them, that Rochelle, their bulwark, was reduced to extremity. The blame of every public miscarriage was thrown by the almost unanimous voice both of the parliament and people upon the favorite; but he sheltered himself from their vengeance under the royal protection, till he was murdered by one Felton, as he was preparing to embark for the relief of Rochelle.

Suspecting the views and disapproving the government of Charles, the commons would vote no supplies without some redress of the national grievances; upon which the king, presuming on what had been practised in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly understood, levied money upon monopolies of some of the necessaries of life, and raised various taxes without the authority of parliament. His government thus becoming very unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne, a lawyer, and Bastwick, a physician, 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, and punished with so much rigor, as excited general indignation.

Unfortunately for Charles, he put his conscience into the hands of Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, who was a great bigot both in church and state. Laud advised him to check the puritans, and introduce

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episcopacy into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed secret connexions with the discontented English, and invaded England in August 1640, when Charles was so ill served by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots.

Charles had taken Wentworth, a man of great abilities, into his service: he raised him to the earldom of Strafford, and permitted him to act as the first minister. This statesman 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 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 injustice and oppression. He was at length brought to the block, though much against the inclination 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 not before the popular party had annihilated the royal power.

Charles, in the fourth year of his reign, 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 ordained particularly, "that no man should be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or the like charge, without common consent by act of parliament;" but he afterwards violated it in so many instances, that general discontent prevailed.

In 1641, a rebellion broke out in Ireland, 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 favored them, out of hatred to his English subjects. While this and other circumstances increased his unpopularity, he was so ill advised as to go to the house of commons, and demand that his chief opponents in that assembly should be apprehended; but they had previously made their escape. This act was resented as high treason against his people, and the commons rejected all the offers of satisfaction he could make them.

Notwithstanding the acts of tyranny and oppression, of which Charles and his ministers had been guilty, yet, when a civil war arose from that source, a great number of the most respectable persons in the kingdom flocked to the king's standard. Many of the nobility and gentry were much attached to the crown, and considered their own honors as connected with it; and a great part of the landed interest was joined to the royal party. The parliament, however, assumed the executive power, and received strong support from most of the corporations, while its great resource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindsey, a brave but not an enterprising commander: and he had great dependence on the princes Rupert and Maurice, the sons of his sister Elizabeth.

In the beginning of the war, the royal army had the ascendancy; but, in its progress, affairs took a very different turn. The earl of Essex was appointed general under the parliament, and the first battle was fought at Edge-hill in Warwickshire, on the 23d of October, 1642. Both parties claimed the victory, though the advantage lay with Charles. He 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. Its leaders 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 from the parliament's service, on the suggestion that they were disposed to be too friendly to the king, and for introducing Fairfax, who was more easily duped, to the chief command. In the progress of the war, two battles were fought at Newbury, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewise 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.

The first severe disaster which the king's army received was at Marston-moor, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Manchester obtained an important victory. On other occasions, the errors of Charles, and of his chief partisans, promoted the success of his more prudent and politic adversaries. Some 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. But they were outwitted and over-ruled by the independents, who were assisted by the insincerity of Charles himself. In short, the independents at last succeeded in persuading the members at Westminster that he was not to be trusted, whatever his concessions might be. From that moment the affairs of the royalists rapidly declined. The king, in 1645, was defeated by Fairfax at Naseby; and, after other misfortunes, he retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be safe.

The Scots, who had joined the parliamentarians, did not cordially agree with them; and, therefore, the king was inclined to seek refuge in their camp from the resentment of his English enemies: but, when he had solicited their protection, they were so intimidated by the resolutions of the ruling party, that, in consideration of the payment of their arrears, they delivered him into the hands of the parliament's commissioners, probably not suspecting the consequences.

The presbyterians were still inclined to make peace with the king; but they were no longer masters, being forced to receive law from the army and the independents. The troops now avowed their intentions. They first took Charles by force out of the hands of the commissioners; and then, dreading that a treaty might still take place, they imprisoned 41 of the presbyterian members, voted the house of peers to be useless, and reduced that of the commons to 150. In the mean time, Charles, who unhappily promised himself relief from those dissensions, was carried from one prison to another, and sometimes cajoled by the independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were begun, but miscarried; and he had been so imprudent, after effecting an escape, as 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 seized his person, brought him prisoner to Westminster, subjected him to an irregular and extraordinary trial before a pretended court of justice, and put him to death in the front of his own palace, on the 30th of January, 1649, in the forty-ninth year of his age. This prince possessed some virtues and accomplishments, and would probably have reigned in tranquillity, and have enjoyed the good

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opinion of his people, if he had not lived at a time when a high spirit of liberty was daily gaining ground.

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 crown lands, 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 leaders of the commonwealth passed an act of navigation; and declaring war against the Dutch, who were thought all 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 national army. Admiral Blake, and other enterprising officers, carried the terror of the English name by sea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell, having now very little employment, began to be afraid that his services would be forgotten; for which reason he went, in 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 musqueteers, and dissolved the parliament, contemptuously driving all the members, about a hundred, out of their house. He next annihilated the council of state, with which the executive power was lodged, and transferred the administration to about 140 persons, whom he summoned to meet at Whitehall.

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 favor of England, the Dutch lost their brave admiral Van Tromp. Cromwell, at this time, wished to be declared king; but he perceived that he must encounter insurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood and his other friends, if he should persist in his resolution. He was, however, declared *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; and no tyrant ever had fewer real friends; even those few threatened to oppose him, if he should take upon him the title of king. Historians, in delineating the character of Cromwell, have been imposed upon by his amazing success, and dazzled by the lustre of his fortune; but, when we consult the papers of his secretary Thurloe, the imposition in a great measure vanishes. After a most comfortless usurpation, he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

England acquired much more respect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than she had received since the death of Elizabeth. This arose from 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 1656, the public charge amounted to one million three hundred thousand pounds, of which a

million was applied to the support of the navy and army, and the remainder to 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; and other grievances were also removed. In the next year the total charge or public expense of England amounted to two millions three hundred and twenty-six thousand nine hundred and eighty-nine pounds; and the collections by assessments, excise, and customs, paid into the exchequer, amounted to two millions three hundred and sixty-two thousand pounds.

Upon the whole, it appears that England, from the year 1648 to 1658, 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 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 was granted to all sects, to the vast advantage of population and manufactures, which had suffered greatly by Laud's intolerant schemes, as numbers of artisans had been driven to North-America and foreign countries. Cromwell maintained the honor of the nation, and in many instances interposed effectually in favor of the protestants abroad. Arts and sciences were not much patronised; and yet he had the good fortune to find, 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 shewed some regard to men of learning, and particularly to those who were intrusted with the care of youth at the universities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who succeeded his father as protector, sufficiently proves the great difference that existed between them, as to spirit and abilities. Richard was placed in his dignity by those who wished 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, during the usurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious subsistence) was effected by the general concurrence of the people, who seemed to think that neither peace nor protection could be obtained, but by restoring the monarchical constitution. 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 in 1660. For this service he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honors and riches.

Charles seemed at first to have a real desire of promoting the happiness of his people. 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 nearly destroyed by fire 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 large sums granted to him by the parliament. The price was about 300,000 pounds sterling. But, even in this, his conduct was more defensible than in his secret connex-

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ions with France, which were of the most scandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of the kingdom, and such as must ever reflect disgrace on his memory.

The unprovoked war with the Dutch, which began in 1665, was carried on with great resolution and spirit; but, through the king's misapplication of that money which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending, 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. In 1667, peace was concluded at Breda; and, with a view of checking the ambition and the victorious career of France, Great-Britain soon after concluded, with Holland and Sweden, the triple alliance. In 1672, however, Charles joined the French against the Dutch; and Holland must have fallen, had it not been for the vanity of Louis XIV., who was eager to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and for some 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 clamor at last obliged him to give peace to that republic in 1674, in consideration of the payment of 200,000*l*.

In some things this prince acted very despotically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houses, and ordered them to be shut up; but they were soon re-opened. Great rigor and even cruelty were exercised against the presbyterians, and 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 1677; for he was entirely devoted to that crown, regularly received its money, and hoped, through its influence and power, to be absolute. It is not, however, to be denied, that the trade of England was now greatly augmented, and that Charles took vigorous measures for its protection and support; and it ought not to be forgotten, that, to his occasional desire of gratifying the parliament, we owe the act of *habeas-corpus*.

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. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more self-contradictory, than some parts of their narrative, it was supported with the utmost zeal on the part of the parliament. The aged lord Stafford, Coleman, secretary to the duke of York, and other papists, were condemned to death, on the testimony of perjured witnesses, and the king did not dare to pardon them. The queen herself escaped with difficulty; the duke of York was obliged to retire to the continent, and Charles, though convinced that the whole was an imposture, yielded to the torrent. At last it spent its force.

As the king was influenced by the advice of the duke of York, whose bigotry, prejudices, and unfeeling disposition, rendered him an object of odium, the leaders of opposition endeavoured to procure his exclusion from the throne. A bill for that purpose was strongly supported by able speakers: but, when it had passed through the lower house, it was rejected by the peers. The displeasure of the commons, on this occasion, vented itself in uncourtly resolutions and addresses; and, when Charles had indignantly dissolved the parliament, and convoked another at Oxford, the unallayed zeal of the duke's adversaries still disgusted the pride of royalty. The two houses were abruptly dismissed; the opponents of the court were suddenly confounded; and the two brothers made a scan-

dalous use of their victory. They fabricated on their side a pretended plot of the protestants for seising and killing the king, and altering the government; and the excellent lord Russel, who had been zealous in his opposition to the popish succession, Algernon Sydney, and several other distinguished protestants, were tried, condemned, and suffered death.

Charles died on the 6th of February, 1685, in the 55th year of his age. His reign 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 immurity. Yet some 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 days of Charles may be called the Augustan age of mathematics and natural philosophy. He loved and understood the arts more than he encouraged or rewarded them, especially those of English growth; but this neglect proceeded less from narrow-mindedness, than from indolence and want of reflexion. He was acquainted with the art of ship-building; and the royal navy of England was considerably improved by his 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 toward him was increased by the early declaration he made in favor of the church of England. The army and people supported him in crushing an ill-concerted rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who, pretending to be the lawful son of Charles II., had assumed the title of king. That duke being beheaded, and some hundreds of his followers cruelly put to death, James 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 injudicious and offensive measures, to render popery the established religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of dispensing with the known laws, instituted an illegal ecclesiastical court, and admitted the pope's emissaries into the privy-council. He sent an ambassador 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 even by the pope himself, and all moderate catholics. His prosecution of 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, then in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Louis XIV., who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince was the nephew and son-in-law of James, having married 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. Even the king's daughter 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 to France, and to follow them: he complied with the advice; and the Re-

volution was the consequence of his retreat. The parliament declared that the throne was vacated by his misconduct and abdication, and called William and Mary to the succession.

The nation, rendered cautious by the experience of the two last reigns, obtained William's 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 was very inadequate to what ought to have been insisted on, at a period so favorable to the enlargement and security of freedom, as when a crown was bestowed by the 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 dignity and splendor.

It was only the just sense the people of England had of their civil and religious rights, that could provoke them to consent to this 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 the merchant ships, as appears from Dr. Davenant, was, in 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 augmented to 101,032 tons. The customs, and the annual rental of England, had increased in the same proportion. It was fortunate for the nation, that its wealth enabled it to prevent the return of James; to reduce Ireland, where that prince had great interest; and to crush the navy of France at La Hogue.

Invasions were threatened, and frequent conspiracies discovered against the government; and the supply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new resources for money. A land-tax was imposed, the lands of every subject being taxed according to the valuations given in by the several counties. But the greatest and boldest operation in finance that ever took place was established in that reign, which was, the borrowing of money upon parliamentary security, the interest being payable by permanent taxes. 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, met with so many mortifications from the two houses of 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 the hope 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 in 1694; but the government was continued in his person. After peace was restored, the commons obliged him to disband his army, except an inconsiderable number, and to dismiss his favorite Dutch guards. Toward the end of his reign, his fears of seeing Spain and its dependencies in the possession of France at the death of the catholic king Charles II., which was every day expected, led him into an impolitic measure; for he concluded a

convention with Louis, for a partition of the Spanish dominions between the houses of Bourbon and Austria. Some of his ministers were impeached for recommending this treaty; and he saw his error when it was too late. The death of James soon disclosed 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 a bill of abjuration, and voted an address to him for a war with France. The last great transaction of his reign was the enactment of the bill for settling the succession to the crown in the house of Hanover, in 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. This prince was not formed by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding; he seemed 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, he often favored the Tories. The rescue and preservation of public liberty, however, rendered William's reign memorable and glorious.

Anne, princess of Denmark, 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 that she would have deviated from his measures; but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, the Pretender, left her no choice; and she resolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to give her full confidence to the earl of Marlborough. She could not have made a better choice of a general and statesman, for that noblemen 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 favorite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II. of Spain, in consequence of the intrigues of France, left his dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV.; and the young prince was immediately proclaimed king of Spain. But his succession was disputed by the second son of the emperor of Germany, who assumed the title of Charles III., and whose cause was favored by England, Holland, and other powers. A strong confederacy was thus formed against the house of Bourbon.

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 ruin. Though prince Eugene was on that day joined in command with the duke, the glory of the day principally rested with the latter. About 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, beside 13,000, who were taken. In the same year, 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. On this occasion, about 15,000 of the vanquished were killed, wounded, or captured, while few more than 1000 fell on the part of the allies.

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, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and, while the cause of that prince thus prospered in the Netherlands, his partisans were so active in Spain, that Madrid, Toledo, and other considerable towns, acknowledged his authority.

The war being continued in the Netherlands, the French were again defeated by the duke of Marlborough. At Oudenarde, in 1708, they severely suffered; and, at Malplaquet, in the following year, their loss was still more dreadful. These flattering successes were balanced, however, by great misfortunes.

The queen had sent an army to assist Charles in Spain, under the command of lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portuguese, the English were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. An expedition to Toulon was also unsuccessful, after the most expensive preparations; and, though some advantages were obtained at sea, that branch of the war in general was carried on to the detriment, if not the disgrace, of England. At the same time this country severely felt the scarcity of hands in carrying on trade and manufactures.

As Louis XIV. professed a strong desire of peace, the Whigs at last gave way to a treaty, and conferences ensued, in 1710; but all the offers of the French were rejected, as only intended to amuse and divide the allies. The unreasonable haughtiness of the English plenipotentiaries, and the expected change of the ministry in England, saved France; and affairs from that day took a turn in its favor. Means were found to persuade the queen, who was faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war, in the end, would prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the Whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry was, that "the church was in danger;" which, though groundless, had great effects. Henry Sacheverel, a zealous Tory, had espoused this clamor 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 slight 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 from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greatest imprudence, and excited the astonishment of Europe. So numerous had been his successes, and so great his reputation, that his very name was almost equivalent to an army. But the honor and interest of the nation were sacrificed to private court-intrigues, managed by Mrs. Masham, a relative of the duchess of Marlborough, who had supplanted her benefactress, and by Mr. Harley.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, to which the queen and the French king sent plenipotentiaries; and the allies, being defeated at Denain, became sensible that they were no match for the French, since 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 should renounce all claim to the crown of France; and the heirs to the French monarchy in like manner should renounce all right to the crown of Spain.

The rest of the queen's life was rendered uneasy by the dissensions of her ministers. It is well known 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 put an end to her life on the first of August, 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age.

Anne had no strength of mind, by herself, to carry any important resolve into execution; and, on her death, the succession took place in the 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. 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, in 1715, driven into a rebellion, which, however, was quickly suppressed.

The nation was in such a disposition that the ministry durst not 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 ministers were excessively jealous of every thing that seemed to affect their master's title: and George, though a sagacious moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too subservient to his continental connexions, which were various and complicated. On account of these he entered into a dispute with the emperor of Russia; and, if Charles XII. of Sweden had not been killed so critically as he was, Great-Britain probably would have been invaded by that northern conqueror, considerable preparations being made for that purpose,—he being incensed at the conduct of 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 by Great-Britain, France, Germany, and the States-General; and Sir George Byng destroyed the Spanish fleet at Syracuse. But this war soon ended; and the Spaniards delivered up Sardinia and Sicily to the duke of Savoy and 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 eagerly hoped to avail themselves of the national discontent at the South-Sea scheme, and at the new connexions with the continent. Layer, a barrister, suffered death for high treason. Several persons of distinction were apprehended on suspicion: but the storm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, bishop of Rochester, who was banished for life. There was some irregularity in the proceedings against him; and therefore the justice of the sentence has been questioned, though there is no reason to doubt his delinquency.

So fluctuating was the state of Europe at this time, that, in 1725, a new treaty was concluded at Hanover, by the kings of Great-Britain, France, and Prussia, to counterbalance an alliance which had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A squadron was sent to the Baltic to prevent the Russians from attacking Sweden, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under Hosier, to the West-Indies, to watch the Spanish plate-fleets. The last was a disastrous and an inglorious

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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 Spaniards were not more fortunate. They lost nearly 10,000 men in the siege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raise.

A rupture with the emperor was the most dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; and, though an opposition was formed in the house of commons by sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament continued to be 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.

Sir Robert Walpole was considered as first minister of England when George I. died; and some differences having arisen between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, on the accession of the latter to the crown, that Sir Robert would be displaced. That might have been the case, if another person could have been found equally capable of managing the house of commons, and of gratifying 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, with his own creatures; and peace was his darling object, because he thought that war would be fatal to his power. During his long administration, he never lost a point that he was earnestly desirous of gaining. The excise scheme was the first measure that gave a shock to his power; and even that he might have carried into effect, if he had not been alarmed at the rising spirit of the people.

Caroline, consort to George II., had been always a firm friend to the minister; but she died in 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 of 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 close.

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 Carthage, in which some thousands of British lives were wantonly thrown away. His miscarriages were imputed to his not being properly supported by the government.

When a new parliament met, Walpole could not secure a majority; and, after some unsatisfactory divisions, he retired from the house in 1742, and resigned all his employments. The king bore the loss of his minister with the greatest equanimity, and even conferred titles of honor, and posts of distinction, upon the heads of the opposition. At the same time, the death of the emperor Charles VI., the danger of the pragmatic sanction, through the ambition of France, which had filled Germany with troops, and other concurrent causes, induced his majesty to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, an able but headstrong minister, and indeed by the voice of the nation in general. He accordingly put himself at the head of his army, and gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743.

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 small loss; and soon after the French, who had before only acted as allies to the Spaniards, declared war against Great-Britain. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war, carried on a most lucrative trade; nor could they be persuaded 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 that he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance such a train of misfortunes, admiral Anson returned this year to England with a great treasure, 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 fortress of Louisbourg, in the island of Cape Breton.

Such was the state of affairs abroad in 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 friends of the excluded family had laid a deep scheme for distressing the bank; but common danger united the great body of the people 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 peace to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, son-in-law to 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. They 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, as both courts turned their thoughts to peace, a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748: the basis of which was the mutual restitution of all places taken during the war.

The chief conductor of the government at that time was Mr. Henry

Pelham, who certainly did not shine as a war-minister, but was an intelligent and respectable man. Taking advantage of the return of peace, he reduced the interest of the national debt, promoted commerce and the arts, encouraged the renewed colonisation of Nova-Scotia, and particularly attended to the improvement of the northern parts of Scotland, and the civilisation of the Highlanders. To some of his parliamentary measures strong opposition was made by the partisans of Frederic, the heir apparent, who considered himself as neglected and ill-treated by his father: but the prince's death, in 1751, paralysed the operations of his friends.

When Mr. Pelham died, in 1754, a new war was on the point of breaking out. 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 veterans to support their usurpations, admiral Boscawen was sent with a squadron to the banks of Newfoundland, where he took two French ships of the line. Orders were also issued for making general reprisals in Europe; and, before the end of the year 1755, above 500 French mercantile vessels were brought into our ports: but, in the American campaign, general Braddock, who had been sent from England to reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuscade of the French and the savages near Fort du Quesne. Major-general Johnson was more fortunate; for he triumphed over a strong body of the enemy near Crown-Point.

In proportion as the spirits of the public were elevated by the formidable armaments which were prepared, 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 Galissoniere; and that at last Minorca was surrendered by general Blakeney. The prevailing 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. William Pitt was placed, as secretary of state, at the head of the 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 Suraj-ed-Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, and placed Juffier in the ancient seat of the nabobs of those provinces. This event laid the foundation of the great extent of territory which the English now possess in the East-Indies.

The first expedition prepared by Mr. Pitt failed, chiefly from the imprudent choice of a commander. Murmurs arose among the people; but they hoped for success in future enterprises. The duke of Cumberland, who commanded an army of observation, composed of subsidiary troops, had been constrained to agree to a convention of neutrality, while the French took possession of Hanover; but, as they violated in several instances the terms of the treaty, the English minister concurred with his sovereign and the king of Prussia in the expediency of sending a considerable force to act with vigor in the continental war.

The French, in 1758, were driven out of Hanover; and, in other parts of Germany, they suffered both loss and disgrace.

In 1759, three great expeditions were planned by the ministry for the American branch of the war, and all of them proved successful. One was against the French islands in the West Indies, where Gundaloupe 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 Montcalm, an able general. 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, Montcalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perseverance, however, surmounted every difficulty: he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he engaged and nearly defeated the French army, but was himself killed, as was Montcalm. Monckton (who was next in command) being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the glory of reducing Quebec, were reserved for brigadier Townsend.

General Amherst conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Laurence. By the success of these expeditions the French empire in North-America became subject to Great-Britain.

A spirited campaign ensued in Germany. Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, who commanded the British and subsidiary troops, made three assaults upon the French, with a view of expelling them from Franckfort: but he could neither succeed in that object, nor prevent them from over-running Hesse-Cassel and invading the Hanoverian territories. In the battle of Minden, however, he prevailed over a numerous army, chiefly by the exertions of 7000 British and Hanoverian combatants; and the victory would have been a complete triumph, if lord George Sackville, pretending not to understand the orders which he received, had not kept the cavalry out of action.

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 admiral Boscawen attacked the Toulon squadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the Strait of Gibraltar, took three ships of the line and burned two; and sir Edward Hawke entirely defeated the Brest fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the isle of Dumet, in the bay of Biscay. The French then relinquished all thoughts of invading our well-defended island.

The campaign of 1760 was less brilliant than that of the preceding year; but it was not wholly unimportant. The conquest of Canada was completed by the reduction of Quebec and Montreal: the French were attacked with success in India, and the powerful company extended its influence and authority by the deposition of Jaffier Ali Khan; and, in Europe, prince Ferdinand obtained a considerable but indecisive advantage over the invaders of Germany.

Amidst these hostilities, the king died on the 25th of October, 1760, in the 77th year of his age, and was succeeded by his grandson, the eldest son of Frederic prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehensible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. 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 judicature were never better filled than under him.

The first acts of the reign of George III. convinced the public that the war would still be prosecuted with vigor. In 1761, Belleisle, near the western coast of France, surrendered to his majesty's ships and forces, as did the important fortress of Pondicheri, in the East-Indies. In 1762, Martinique, Grenada, St. Lucia, and other islands in the West-Indies, were subdued by the British arms with inconceivable rapidity.

In the mean time, Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war against France with such eminent ability, and who had received accurate information of the hostile intentions and private intrigues of the court of Spain, proposed 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, except his brother-in-law, earl Temple. He 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 favor. It was now declared by Mr. Pitt, that, "as he was called to the administration 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 was pensioned for his services.

The war was still carried on with vigor, and the plans were pursued which Mr. Pitt had previously concerted. The earl of Egremont was appointed to succeed him, as secretary for the southern department. It was at length found indispensably necessary to engage in a war with Spain, the famous family-compact among all the 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-force; and these spirited commanders struck at the vitals of the Spanish monarchy by the reduction of the Havannah, the most important fortress which his catholic majesty held in the West-Indies, after a siege of two months and eight days. This conquest was succeeded by the surrender of Manilla and the Philippine islands, in the East-Indies, to an armament commanded by general Draper and admiral Cornish. To counteract these dreadful blows given to the family-compact, the French and Spaniards employed their last resource, which was to injure the British interests by an invasion of Portugal; but the campaign in that country was not so effective as it was alarming.

Negotiations, which the French had proposed without effect in 1761, were now resumed; and the enemy at last offered such terms as the British ministry thought admissible and adequate to 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 other quarters; and on the 10th of February, 1763, the definitive treaty, concluded by his Britannic majesty with France and Spain, was signed at Paris. By this treaty the whole province of Canada was ceded to Great-Britain, with cape Breton: the islands of Grenada, Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tobago, were also left in the possession of the English, who resigned Martinique, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia and Belle-

isle; while the Spaniards gave Florida and Minorca in exchange for the island of Cuba and the Philippines.

The peace did not give universal satisfaction, because there were many who considered the terms as too favorable to the enemy, after so glorious a war; and, from this period, various causes contributed to produce great discontent. The affair of Wilkes agitated the whole kingdom. That gentleman, having satirised the king's speech in the *North-Briton*, was seised in consequence of a general warrant, directed against the authors, printers, and publishers of that offensive paper. He disputed the legality of his arrest; but the two secretaries of state over-ruled his objections, and committed him to the Tower. Having demanded a writ of *habeas corpus*, he was liberated by the court of common-pleas, on the ground of parliamentary privilege, to the great joy of the people. A want of employment, about the same time, stimulated the populace, in various parts of the realm, to riotous acts.

When the house of commons took the case of Wilkes into consideration, the obnoxious article in the *North-Briton* (No. 45) was declared to be a gross libel; and, in 1764, he was expelled from the assembly. Not appearing to take his trial in the court of king's-bench for the libel, and for an obscene Essay on Woman, he was subjected to outlawry. He resided for some years in France; and the zeal of party did not subside during his absence.

The earl of Bute, after acting for a short time as prime-minister, found himself so unpopular, that he resigned his station in 1763; and Mr. George Grenville was his successor. By the advice of the new premier, and also of his predecessor, the king resolved to impose taxes upon his subjects in North-America, for the relief of the British nation, which had so long fostered and protected the colonies; and a bill, ordaining stamp-duties, passed through both houses, notwithstanding a spirited opposition.

As soon as it was known in North-America that the bill was enacted, the whole country 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 operation of the statute; and associations were also formed in the different colonies, by which the people bound themselves not to import or purchase any British manufactures, till the act should be repealed. The mal-contented also established committees from every colony to correspond with each other, and even appointed deputies from these committees to meet at New York. They assembled in October, 1765; and this was the first congress holden on the American continent.

These commotions 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 friends succeeded to the vacant places. In March, 1766, a bill passed for repealing the American stamp-act. This bill was countenanced and supported by the new ministers; and Mr. Pitt, though not connected with them, spoke with great force in favor of the repeal.

The marquis and his friends did not long continue in administration. During their sway, several public measures were adopted, tending to the relief of the people, and to the security of their liberties. But, in July, 1766, the duke of Grafton became first lord of the treasury; the earl of Shelburne, secretary of state; Charles Townshend, chancellor of the exchequer; and Mr. Pitt, afterwards created earl of Chatham, was ap-

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pointed keeper of the privy-seal; but his 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 long continuance. Mr. Townshend made for some time a considerable figure both in the cabinet and in parliament; but, on his death, in 1767, the place of chancellor of the exchequer was supplied by lord North, who afterwards became prime minister.

The return of Wilkes to England, in 1768, strongly excited the public attention. He was chosen representative for Middlesex, but was again expelled from the house of commons for being the author of some severe remarks on the conduct of one of the ministers. 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 for Middlesex. The rigor with which he was prosecuted only increased his popularity, which was also much augmented by his spirit and firmness. Before his expulsion he had been chosen an alderman of London: and he was soon re-elected member for Middlesex, without opposition. The return having been made to the house, it was declared that, having been expelled in that session, he was incapable of being elected a member of that parliament. The freeholders treated that resolution with contempt; and he was re-chosen when the sheriff had received a new writ. It was again declared by the house, that he was not a lawful member; and colonel Luttrell offered himself a candidate for the county. Though the whole weight of court-interest was thrown into the scale in this gentleman's favor, a majority of near four to one appeared against him on the day of election. Notwithstanding this, it was voted, that he ought to have been returned; and the deputy clerk of the crown was ordered to amend the return, by erasing the name of Mr. Wilkes, and inserting that of his opponent, who accordingly took his seat in parliament; but this was deemed so gross a violation of the rights of the electors, that it excited general discontent.

To preclude a recurrence to this subject, it may here be mentioned, that Wilkes quietly took his seat in the next parliament; and, in 1783, all the declarations, orders, and resolutions of the house of commons, respecting his election, were ordered to be expunged from the journals, "as being subversive of the rights of the whole body of the electors of this kingdom." It ought also to be remembered, that, in consequence of his contest with the government, general warrants were declared to be illegal, and an end was put to the unlawful seizure of papers by state-messengers.

The repeal of the stamp act seemed to tranquillise the colonies; but the impolicy and arbitrary spirit of the court soon re-produced disgust and complaint. In 1767, duties were imposed on tea and other commodities which might be imported into North-America; but, by a subsequent act, only tea was taxed. As it was not the *amount* of the duties, but the *right* of the parliament to impose taxes in America, which was the subject of dispute, the repeal of the other duties answered no purpose while one remained. It could not, therefore, be supposed that discontent would wholly subside: yet, for some years, exterior tranquillity prevailed in the colonies. At length, in 1773, the arrival of several ships at Boston, laden with tea, excited such a ferment, that a party of mal-contented, rushing on board, threw all the chests into the sea. This behaviour was so resented by the British government, that an act passed for shutting up the port. Another bill was soon after enacted, "for better regulating the government of Massachusetts Bay." The intent of this act was to alter the constitution of that province, 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 to make them all removeable at the pleasure of the crown. Another act also passed, which was considered as highly injurious, cruel, and unconstitutional, empowering the governor to send persons accused of crimes in that province to be tried in England.

The conduct of the court had so exasperated the colonists, that many provincial and municipal meetings were holden, in which they avowed their intention of opposing, in the most vigorous manner, the measures of administration. Agreements were concluded 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 August, 1774, until the Boston port bill, and the other obnoxious laws, should be repealed. The flame continued to increase, and at length twelve of the colonies sent fifty-one deputies to attend a general congress at Philadelphia. These delegates voted a petition to the king, in which they enumerated their grievances, and solicited 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.

Soon 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 ministerial system. He also made a motion for immediately recalling the troops from Boston; but it was rejected by a large majority, as was also a bill which he brought in for settling the American troubles. The methods proposed in the house of commons for promoting an accommodation met with a similar fate. The troops were augmented; and an act passed restraining the commerce of the New England colonies, and prohibiting their fisheries on the banks of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed, afterwards made in the house of commons, by lord North, for suspending the exercise of the right of taxation in America, in those colonies which should, in their general assemblies, raise such contributions as might be approved by the king in parliament. This proposal was adopted; but, when it had been communicated to some provincial assemblies, it was rejected by them as delusive and unsatisfactory, and only calculated to disunite them. Amidst the irritation of both parties, an appeal was made to the sword. It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the first blood was drawn in this unhappy civil war. General Gage having sent troops to destroy some military stores which were at Concord, they succeeded in their design, but were extremely harassed, and forced to a quiet retreat; and, soon after, numerous bodies of the American militia invested the town of Boston, which was occupied by the king's troops.

The continental congress met at Philadelphia, and soon adopted such measures as confirmed the spirit of the people. Among its first acts, were resolutions for the raising of an army, and the establishment of a large paper-currency for its payment. The assembly also strictly prohibited the supply 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 progress of the war, a sanguinary conflict took place at Bunker's-Hill near Boston, in which the king's troops gained the advantage,

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but not without severe loss. After this action the Americans threw up works upon another hill, opposite to it, on their side of Charles-town 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, a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired experience in the preceding war with France, to be commander-in-chief of all the American forces. A declaration was now voted, in which the deputies styled themselves "The Representatives of the United Colonies of North-America," and assigned their reasons for taking arms. A second petition to the king was likewise voted, and it was presented by one of the proprietors of Pennsylvania; 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 planned by the Americans against Canada, to which they were induced by a commission given to general Carleton, governor of that province, 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 punishment against all whom he should deem rebels and opposers of the laws. The expedition was chiefly conducted by Richard Montgomery, who possessed considerable military skill; but, in attempting to gain possession of Quebec, he was killed by the first fire from the battery. The besiegers immediately quitted their camp, and the siege was for some months converted into a blockade.

During these transactions, the troops at Boston were reduced to great distress for want of provisions; the town was bombarded by the Americans; and general Howe, who now commanded the royal army, was obliged to quit the town in the spring of 1776. Washington eagerly took possession of the place, and prepared for more important enterprises.

On the 4th of July, the congress promulgated a solemn declaration, assigning reasons, in forcible language, for a separation from the authority 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 connexion, 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, in which they assumed the title of "The United States of America."

The new British commander seemed disposed to act with spirit. He was at the head of a great army; and the fleet was under the orders of his brother. Both 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 with contempt.

An attack upon the town of New-York seems to have been expected by the provincials, and therefore they had fortified it with all their skill. On Long Island they had also a large body of troops encamped, and several works thrown up. When the British troops had made a descent on that island, various conflicts occurred, and the Americans suffered exceedingly. Finding themselves overpowered, they retired in the night to New-York, which they likewise soon after abandoned. The royal

army obtained some other 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; and these losses obliged the American general to retreat to a great distance. 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 time assigned for the service of the greater part of their army had expired; and the few men who remained with their officers were in a destitute state, with a well-supplied and disciplined army pursuing. Had general Howe pushed on at that time to Philadelphia, he might perhaps have put an end to the contest; but his 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 attacked another post with success, and thus revived the drooping spirits of his countrymen.

The next campaign commenced unfavorably for the Americans, who, after failing in a partial conflict, were defeated on the banks of the Brandywine, and deprived of the city of Philadelphia. But this ill success was compensated by the event of a British expedition, intended by its projectors for the ruin of the colonial cause. The command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne, who set out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and a fine train of artillery, and was joined by a considerable body of savages. 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, he and his men, to the amount of 5600, were obliged, on the 17th of October, to surrender themselves and their arms to the exulting enemy.

During this war, the colonists received occasional supplies of arms and ammunition from France; and that court thought this a favorable conjuncture for lessening the power of Great-Britain. Some French officers also entered into the American service: and an alliance was formed, in 1778, between Louis XVI. and the thirteen united colonies. In this treaty it was declared, that its essential and direct end was "to maintain effectually the liberty, sovereignty, and independence, 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 alarmed at the mischievous tendency of the American war; and commissioners were sent by 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 independence of the United States of America should not be 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 toward Great-Britain occasioned hostilities between those nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either side. Two French frigates being taken by admiral Keppel, orders were immediately issued by the French court for making reprisals; and

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on the 27th of July a battle was fought off Brest, between the English and French fleets. The former consisted of 30 ships of the line, and the latter of 32, beside frigates: they engaged for about three hours, but the action was not decisive. 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 vice-admiral sir Hugh Palliser, who soon after preferred a charge against the admiral. Both were consequently tried by courts-martial. Keppel was honorably acquitted; and sir Hugh was also pronounced not guilty.

In the East Indies, Pondicheri surrendered to the arms of Great-Britain; and, in the West, the island of St. Lucia was taken from the French; but they made themselves masters of Dominica, and, in the following year, they obtained possession of St. Vincent and Grenada. The count D'Estaing, arriving at the mouth of the river Savannah with a considerable armament, attacked the British troops; but the latter defended themselves so well, that the assailants were driven off with great loss.

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 with great vigor. The naval force of Spain was also added to that of France; and the combined fleets for a time rode almost triumphant in the British Channel. So great were their armaments, that the nation seemed to dread an invasion; but they did not venture to make an experiment of that kind, and, after parading for some time in the Channel, they retired to their ports. On the 8th of January, 1780, sir George Brydges Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured seven Spanish ships of war, and a number of trading vessels; and, soon after, the same admiral engaged, near Cape St. Vincent, a Spanish fleet, consisting of eleven ships of the line and two frigates. Four of the largest vessels were taken by his exertions; one was driven on shore, and one blew up during the action. In April and May three conflicts occurred in the West Indies, between Rodney and the count de Guichen; but, in these actions, not a ship was taken on either side. Admiral Geary took twelve valuable French merchant-ships from Port-au-Prince; but the combined fleets of France and Spain took five English East-Indiamen, and fifty merchant-ships bound for the West Indies,—one of the most complete naval captures ever made.

On the American continent, sir Henry Clinton made himself master of Charles-town, and earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over general Gates near Camden. Soon after, major-general Arnold deserted the service of the congress, made his escape to New York, and was made a brigadier 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, on his return to New-York, and being considered as a spy, suffered death accordingly, much regretted for his amiable qualities.

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 prevailed. An act of parliament had lately passed for relieving the Romanists 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. It seemed at first to give little offence to persons of any class in England; but in Scotland it excited great indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. Resolutions were formed to oppose any laws for granting indulgences to papists in Scotland; and a Romish chapel was burned, and the houses of several papists were demolished at Edinburgh. The contagion of bigotry at length reached England; a number of persons assembled, with a view of promoting a petition to parliament for a repeal of the late act, and assumed the title of the Protestant Association. Under the guidance of lord George Gordon, thirty thousand persons assembled on the 2nd of June in St. George's Fields, whence they proceeded to the house of commons. In the course of the day several members of both houses of parliament were grossly insulted and ill-treated by the populace; and on the same evening two Romish chapels were nearly demolished. After a day's respite, another mob assembled, and destroyed a popish chapel in Moor-fields. On the 5th the rioters demolished several 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 the following day, great numbers again assembled, 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 release the confined rioters; 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. Two other prisons, and the houses of lord Mansfield and sir John Fielding, were set on fire: 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; and every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and disorder, tumults and conflagrations. At length large bodies of troops were brought to London; and an order was issued, by the authority of the king in council, for the soldiers to act without waiting for directions from the civil magistrates. The troops exerted themselves with diligence in the suppression of these alarming tumults: a great number of the rioters were killed; many were apprehended, who were afterwards put to death as felons; and the metropolis was at length restored to order and tranquillity. Lord George Gordon was tried for high treason; but, as it did not appear that his intentions were traitorous, he was acquitted, chiefly in consequence of the forcible impression made upon the jury by the vehement eloquence of Erskine.

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 vigor; and that republic soon suffered a severe blow in the loss of the island of St. Eustatius. In the summer of 1781, an engagement occurred between an English fleet under the command of Hyde Parker, and a Dutch squadron under admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger-Bank. Both 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 Tobago, and the Spaniards of West-Florida, with little resistance. Earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over the Americans in North-Carolina; but it was productive of all the consequences of a defeat; for, three days after, he was obliged to leave many of his sick and wounded to the care of his enemy, and to make a long

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retreat before he could find shelter. By different reinforcements, his force amounted to about 7000 men; but his situation became at length very critical. The most effectual measures were adopted by Washington, in concert with the French general Rochambeau, for surrounding his army; and it was closely invested in York-Town, and at Gloucester on the opposite side of the river, both by soldiery and a naval force. The works which had been raised by the British sunk under the weight of the hostile 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, as prisoners of war.

This misfortune threw a gloom over the court and cabinet, and annihilated the hopes of those who had flattered themselves with the subjugation of the colonies. The surrender of this second British army may be considered as the closing scene of the continental war in America; for the great accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the nation, the waste of human blood it had occasioned, the diminution of trade, and the vast increase of taxes, were evils of such magnitude, 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 the war against the American colonies. This was a most important event: it rendered a change of counsels and of measures absolutely necessary, and filled the kingdom with joy. Those country gentlemen who generally voted with the ministry, saw the dangers to which the nation was exposed in a complicated war, 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, under the auspices of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed first lord of the treasury.

Pacification was the first business of the new ministry. Mr. Grenville was invested with full powers to treat at Paris, and was directed to propose the independence of the Thirteen United States of America in the first instance, instead of making it a condition of a general treaty.

Peace every day became more desirable to the people. A series of losses agitated their minds. Early in the year, the French had taken Nevis; Minorca was recovered by the Spaniards; and St. Christopher's was given up to the French. Jamaica, in all probability, would soon have shared the same fate, had not the British fleet fallen in with that of the French under the count de Grasse, in their way to join the Spanish fleet at St. Domingo. The French van was too far advanced to support the centre; and a signal victory was obtained, on the 12th of April, by sir George Rodney, who sank one ship by a broadside, and captured five sail of the line, one of which quickly blew up. This victory revived the drooping spirits of the nation; and the gallant defence of Gibraltar by general Eliot had also an enlivening effect. The formidable attack, on the 13th of September, with floating batteries of 212 brass cannon, &c., in ships from 1400 to 600 tons burthen, ended in disappointment, and in the destruction of all the ships and most of the assailants.

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. The earl of Shelburne succeeded the marquis, without the consent or even knowledge of his colleagues.

By the treaty which was concluded in 1783 between Great-Britain

and France, the former ceded the islands of Tobago, St. Lucia, St. Pierre, Miquelon, and Goree; with Pondicheri, 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 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 ceded West-Florida and Minorca. With Holland it was stipulated that Great-Britain should restore Trincomale (but the French had already taken it), and that the Dutch should give up Negapatam 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 and his heirs, relinquished all claims to the government, property, and territorial rights of the same.

Thus a period was put to a most calamitous war, in which Great-Britain lost the best part of her American colonies, and many thousands of valuable lives, and expended or squandered nearly 150 millions sterling. The terms of peace were strongly condemned 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 enlistment of the majority of the commons, on this occasion, under the banners of the *famous coalition leaders*, Mr. Fox and lord North, plainly indicated the approach of a ministerial revolution; and the peace-makers were obliged to withdraw from power. The two new friends were appointed secretaries of state, and the duke of Portland first lord of the treasury, in April, 1783. Mr. Fox soon after brought into parliament his bill for regulating the government of the India company, and its commercial affairs and territories. As it was supposed by the court, that this bill would render the king a mere tool in the hands of the coalition, by giving to Mr. Fox and his friends the whole patronage of India, the royal influence was exerted against it; and it was rejected in the upper house by a majority of 19 votes. The two secretaries were immediately dismissed with contempt; and Mr. Pitt (son of the late earl of Chatham), who had acted as chancellor of the exchequer under the earl of Shelburne, was placed, in 1784, at the head of the treasury. A strong contest ensued between the parties, which could only be terminated by a dissolution of the parliament. On the 18th of May a new parliament assembled; and Mr. Pitt then brought in his India bill, of which we have given an account under the article PUBLIC COMPANIES. In 1786, the plan of the same minister for establishing a sinking fund, and employing a million annually in the reduction of the national debt, was proposed, and received the sanction of the parliament.

While Mr. Pitt attended to the national concerns, he did not neglect foreign politics. He observed, with disgust, that the leaders of the republican party in Holland aimed at the humiliation of the prince of Orange, and that they endeavoured to deprive him even of his lawful authority; and, while the French king abetted their views, it seemed to be the interest of our court to support the stadtholder. The threatening storm burst forth in the year 1787. As the king of Prussia concurred with Great-Britain on this occasion, the French court contented itself with mere promises. When the prince was seriously menaced with the ruin of his power, military and naval preparations were ordered by the

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English ministry; but the dispute was settled by the unaided efforts of a Prussian army. Amsterdam was taken by assault; and the stadtholder was gratified with a considerable augmentation of power.

As no war seemed likely to arise for some years, the minister had full leisure to promote the commerce and industry of the nation: but there was one branch of traffic which he rather wished to suppress than encourage. The trade carried on by this country, and other European nations, upon the coast of Africa, for the purchase of negro slaves, to be employed in the cultivation of the West-Indian islands and certain parts of the continent of America, had not been considered with that general attention which such a practice might have been expected to excite; a practice so repugnant 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 also took the lead, and presented a similar petition to the parliament of this kingdom. The cause soon after became highly popular. Many pamphlets were published on this subject; eminent divines recommended it from the pulpit, and in printed discourses; and petitions were offered to the legislature by the two universities, and by some of the most respectable towns. Thus stimulated, the ministers instituted an inquiry, before a committee of the privy-council, into the allegations of both parties; and Mr. Wilberforce proposed, in the house of commons, the abolition of a trade which (he said) was one mass of iniquity from the beginning to the end: but, for many years, the parliament did not attend, in this instance, to the voice of the people.

In the autumn of 1788, the nation was suddenly alarmed by the king's illness. Its precise nature was for several days 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 circumstances which usually characterise and accompany that unfortunate state. The kingdom betrayed no symptoms of confusion, anarchy, or civil commotion. Yet, as it was necessary to provide for the due exercise of the royal functions, the parliament decided that the prince of Wales should be invited and requested to accept the regency under certain limitations. While the bill for this purpose was in progress, the king became convalescent, and was consequently restored to the exercise of his functions.

While France was convulsed with revolutionary troubles, and other states of Europe were involved in war, Great-Britain exhibited a picture of complete serenity. This calm was scarcely disturbed, in 1790, by a frivolous dispute with the Spaniards, who dislodged the English from Nootka-Sound in North-America, but were obliged by menaces of war to restore it. An alarm soon after arose from the increasing ambition of the Russian empress, who aimed at the extension of her dominions on the side of Turkey; and Mr. Pitt was induced, by a sense of policy, to equip an armament as a check to her pretensions. She consented to conclude peace with the Turks, but insisted on the cession of a considerable territory, reaching to the Niester; and our court at length acquiesced in her demands. A greater alarm was excited by the supposed progress of republican opinions in this country; and, in 1792, a proclamation against seditious writings, followed by an order for embodying the militia, engaged a considerable share of the public attention. It had the intended effect, and produced many 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. To say that there were no persons who had embraced republican principles, and would have been willing to concur in changing the form of government, 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 extremes. The controversies occasioned by the pamphlets of Burke and Calonne, and particularly the writings of Paine, well adapted to the comprehension of the lower class of people, and pregnant with pointed remarks on some existing abuses, though, perhaps, destitute of sound policy or principle, 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 the most opulent individuals of the community, were averse to any change or innovation whatever. It was by 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; 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 Schelde, 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 seeming readiness of the French to refer the dispute 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 its peace.

The bill against the intrusion of aliens, of which the French complained, alleging that it was a violation of the commercial treaty concluded in 1786, formed another ground of dispute; and this offence was augmented by the prohibition of exporting corn to France, while it was freely allowed to the powers at war with that country.

At length, Chauvelin, the French resident, was officially informed by the English court, that his character and functions were terminated by the fatal death of the king of France; and eight days were allowed for his departure. 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 at the period of Chauvelin's dismissal, he thought it prudent immediately to return to France.

A war was now the consequence of suspicion and apprehension on one side, and of animosity on the other. It was first declared by France;

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and the challenge was readily accepted by Great-Britain. For the military operations which ensued, we refer the reader to our account of France, to the history of which country they properly appertain.

In this second year of the war, the alarm which the court felt at the supposed propagation of French principles prompted the minister to institute a prosecution against Mr. Horne Tooke and other advocates of freedom, who merely wished to promote that reform which they thought necessary for the security of the constitution. He formerly entertained the opinions which they professed; but, when he became a courtier, he followed the example of Pulteney and other apostates, and studiously discountenanced, with few exceptions, whatever he had before recommended. In consequence of this change of sentiment, he was disgusted at the conduct of those who did not relinquish their uncourtly propensities, and considered them as proper objects of the rigors of punishment. A shoe-maker named Thomas Hardy, who had acted as secretary to a society of reformists, being indicted for a treasonable attempt to subvert the constitution, was tried by a special commission: but, after a minute investigation, which was not closed before the eighth day, he was acquitted by the spirit of the jury. Mr. Tooke and Mr. Thelwall were also tried, and pronounced not guilty; and their supposed accomplices (Bonney, Joyce, Kyd, and Holcroft) were then dismissed, because it was concluded by their prosecutors that they would pass the ordeal without injury. Thus ended these memorable trials, the issue of which the country awaited with the utmost agitation and with 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 treason.

In the following year, the trial of Mr. Hastings terminated. He had been impeached, in 1787, of high crimes and misdemeanors, committed in the administration of British India; and his imputed guilt was emblazoned and exaggerated by the eloquence of Burke, Fox, Sheridan, and Windham. The process against him, for the length of its duration, exceeded every trial in the history of the world: but he was honorably acquitted, and his services were rewarded by the India Company with a liberal pension.

After some fruitless attempts to restore peace, the king, at the beginning of the year 1797, was insulted by an act of strange hostility; we allude to the invasion of Great-Britain by 1200 men, without artillery, and almost without accoutrements. The alarm at first was great, throughout Pembrokeshire, on the coast of which the landing was made; but the men surrendered on the approach of a very small force, and almost without resistance. On inquiry, it appeared that they consisted 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.

A more serious cause of alarm soon after occurred. The bank of England discontinued the issuing of specie in its customary payments. A run (to speak in the commercial phraseology) had taken place upon some of the country banks; and the great demand for cash 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 appeared, prohibiting the issue of cash from the bank.

In the spring, the 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

manceuvre, separated the rear of the enemy's fleet from the main body, and captured four ships of the line. About the same time, in the western hemisphere, a Spanish squadron was attacked with complete success near Trinidad, and that valuable island was subjected to the dominion of Britain.

The seamen of England, however, who had so long constituted the defence and glory of the nation, seemed suddenly to aim at its overthrow. In April, a most alarming mutiny broke out in the grand fleet at Spithead, under the command of lord Bridport. The sailors required an increase of their pay, and new regulations relative to the allowance of provisions. They appointed delegates, two for each ship, who for several days had the command of the whole fleet. 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, no act of indemnity being offered for the security of those concerned in the mutiny, they again rose, and 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 had been promised, was therefore hastily passed through both houses. The delegates then declared themselves satisfied, and harmony and good order were restored. Discontent, however, arose in other parts of the navy; and, soon after, the seamen of some ships lying at Sheerness began to behave riotously; and so contagious was the spirit of insurrection, that almost all the ships at Yarmouth appointed delegates, and sailed away to the Nore, to join the mutineers. New grievances were required to be redressed, and new and extravagant demands to be complied with. The ministers were now convinced that to yield would only be to encourage a repetition of similar conduct; and every disposition was therefore made to force these ships to submission. All communication was cut off between them and the shore. The mal-contented, to supply themselves with provisions and water, detained all vessels coming up the river, and took out of them whatever they chose; for which their delegates gave draughts on the treasury, as taken for the use of the navy of England. At length, being reduced to great want of water, 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 other mutineers, were tried by a court-martial. Several offenders suffered death; some were sentenced to different punishments, and many were pardoned. Richard Parker, who had acted as commander of the fleet while in a state of mutiny, displayed great presence of mind, and submitted to his fate 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. On its venturing out, an engagement ensued (on the 11th of October) near Camperdown; and the British fleet obtained a complete victory, taking nine ships of the line and two frigates.

In the course of the year another attempt was made by the cabinet to procure a pacification; but it failed in consequence of the enemy's obstinacy and intractability. The French, however, condescended to conclude peace with the emperor; and then, having little employment for their armies, threatened England with an immediate invasion; but this menace was not even attempted to be carried into execution; and the government soon after turned its views toward another quarter of the globe, by fitting out, at Toulon, a formidable armament, which, in 1798, sailed

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for Egypt, under the command of Bonaparté, with the view to prepare the way, by the conquest of that country, for an attack on the British settlements in India. Having taken Malta in their way, the French arrived at Alexandria, and soon gained possession of Cairo, while their fleet remained near the coast. Sir Horatio Nelson, after an anxious search, perceived, with joy, thirteen ships of the line in the bay of Aboukir. If he had not commanded a corresponding number, he would have been equally ready to attack the enemy. L'Orient, the flag-ship of Brueys, the French admiral, 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 on 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 of breaking the line of the French, and surrounding a part of the fleet; and he ably executed his purpose. At sun-set (on the 1st of August), the engagement commenced; and both parties fought with the utmost fury. While the victory was yet undecided, M. 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. In the evening a fire was observed in L'Orient, which increased with great rapidity, till she blew up with a dreadful explosion. 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, beside L'Orient, was burned, her own captain setting fire to her.

In the ensuing autumn, sir John Borlase Warren attacked, off the coast of Ireland, a French squadron, consisting of one ship of the line and eight frigates, with troops on board. The whole squadron, two frigates excepted, fell into the hands of the assailants.

In the Mediterranean, also, success shone upon the British arms; for the fortress of Ciudadella, and the island of Minorca, were surrendered to general Stuart and commodore Duckworth; an acquisition which was made without the loss of a man.

The most important expedition undertaken by Great-Britain, in 1799, was that which aimed at the rescue of Holland from the French yoke. The first division of the armament, under sir Ralph Abercrombie, landed near the close of the summer in North-Holland, and, after a spirited conflict, repelled a strong body of French and Dutch. The enemy then evacuated the batteries and works of the Helder point; and admiral Mitchel, immediately after, entered the Texel, and offered battle to the Dutch fleet, the whole of which, consisting of twelve ships, surrendered to the English admiral, the Dutch sailors refusing to fight, and compelling their officers to give up their vessels for the service of the prince of Orange.

The duke of York, arriving in Holland with the second division, took the command of the army; and, on the 19th of September, an engagement took place between 35,000 men (British and Russians) and the French, in which the Russians, suffering themselves to be thrown into disorder by their impetuosity and haste, met with a severe loss. The army, however, soon recovered from the effect 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 Alkmaer. But here the success of the expedition terminated. The enemy had received a great reinforcement, and occupied a strong position, which it would be necessary to force before the army could advance; beside which, the state of the weather, the ruined condition of the roads, and the consequent want of the supplies necessary for the army, presented such insurmountable difficulties, that it was judged expedient to withdraw the troops from their advanced position; and, as it now appeared that there could be no hopes of success in any attempt to prosecute the object of the expedition, the duke concluded an armistice with general Brune, the principal conditions of which were, that eight thousand French and Dutch prisoners, taken before that campaign, should be restored, and that the invaders should speedily evacuate the territory of the Batavian republic.

Such was the unfortunate termination of an expedition, the failure of which, when it was planned, was considered as almost impossible; and which, in fact, commenced with 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 sea, which is her only protection, the source of all her wealth and glory.

A prospect of peace arose soon after this abortive expedition; but it was a mere delusion on the part of the first consul of France. Paul, in a fit of caprice, now recalled his troops from Italy and Switzerland; and Bonaparté, raising a new and well-appointed army, and passing the Alps by a route thought impracticable, defeated the Austrians in the battle of Marengo; the consequence of which was, that general Melas proposed an armistice, and surrendered the whole of Piedmont and Genoa to the French. 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 a truce likewise in that quarter, and propositions were made for peace. Preliminaries were signed; but, some delay occurring in their ratification, hostilities recommenced, and Moreau gained the decisive battle of Hohenlinden; after which the negotiations were renewed, and a peace between France and Austria was concluded at Luneville in 1801.

In the mean time a serious dispute had occurred between Great-Britain and the northern powers, relative to the claims of neutrals. 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, an armament was fitted out in the British ports, under the command of sir Hyde Parker. This fleet triumphantly passed the Sound, and soon reached the capital of Denmark. The Danes had made very formidable dispositions. Before the city were stationed many 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; and it was attended with complete success. The Danes lost seventeen vessels, among which were seven ships of the line, fitted up for that particular occasion. Lord Nelson proceeded to approach Copenhagen, into which

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some bombs were thrown; but an attack on the city was prevented by a flag of truce; and an armistice was soon after concluded with sir Hyde Parker by the Danish court.

The death of the emperor Paul promoted the settlement of these disputes; and a convention was signed, by which the right of search, even under a convoy, was allowed. Before this agreement was adjusted, the administration of Mr. Pitt, which had continued seventeen years, unexpectedly terminated by the resignation of that statesman, which was immediately followed by that of Mr. Dundas, and of other members of the cabinet. 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 government, 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 retreat. He was succeeded by Mr. Addington, while lord Hawkesbury, as one of the secretaries of state, assumed the management of foreign affairs.

By the dissolution of the confederacy of the northern powers, one obstacle 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; Abercromby, who originally had the command of that expedition, having unfortunately but gloriously fallen in the battle of Alexandria. The ministry therefore entered seriously into negotiations with the French government. Preliminaries were adjusted at London; and, after farther negotiations, the definitive treaty was signed at Amiens on the 27th of March, 1802.

By this treaty Great-Britain agreed to restore all her conquests, except the island of Trinidad and the Dutch possessions in Ceylon. The Cape of Good Hope was to remain a free port to all the contracting parties, who were to enjoy the same advantages. Malta was to be evacuated by the British troops, and restored to the order of St. John of Jerusalem, under the guaranty of the principal powers of Europe. Egypt was to be restored to the Porte: the territory of Portugal was to be maintained in its integrity: the French troops were to evacuate the territories of Rome and Naples; and the Ionian republic was recognised by France.

But the restless and insatiable ambition of the French Government did not suffer this treaty long to remain inviolate. It affected to treat Great-Britain as compelled by necessity to conclude peace, and incapable of resisting the encroachments of France, unsupported by foreign allies. But the principal subject of dispute was the island of Malta, which the king refused to evacuate without the guaranties for which he had stipulated in the treaty of Amiens. At length, after a protracted negotiation, in the course of which the first consul expressed himself with petulance and insolence, descending even, in a conference with the English ambassador, to the contemptible threat of invasion, a message from the throne was sent to the house of commons in 1803, stating, that the conduct of the French government had obliged his majesty to recall his representative from Paris.

The war being thus renewed, the most active preparations were made for prosecuting it with vigor, and for the defence of the country. A warm impress was carried on in every port, and an act passed for raising an

army of reserve, which added 30,000 men to the regular force of the country. A bill was also enacted, enabling his majesty to call out the whole mass of the people fit to bear arms, in different classes, and to put a certain proportion of them into immediate training. This measure was, however, rendered unnecessary by the spontaneous zeal of the nation. In some cases, the wish of the government was anticipated, and volunteer associations were formed even before they knew that their services would be accepted. Loyal meetings were called in London and in all the great towns, which terminated, not in mere verbal declarations, but in substantial aid to the government. On the part of the enemy great preparations were likewise made, especially at Boulogne. Troops were stationed near the coast to an extraordinary amount; and vessels of a particular description, calculated to cross the Channel with ease, were constructed, not only in the ports, but in the navigable rivers of France and the Netherlands.

An act of treachery disgraced the French government at the commencement of hostilities. A number of English gentlemen and others, who had visited France from motives of curiosity, were inhospitably seized, and committed to custody as prisoners of war. Such an act was as impolitic as base, since the French government could derive no advantage from it.

Success attended the maritime expeditions of the English. They took St. Lucia, Tobago, St. Pierre, and Miquelon; and, as war was also declared against the Dutch, because they were under the control of France, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, were subjected to British sway. On the other hand, the French, not being fully prepared for the invasion of our island, rushed into the Hanoverian territories, and reduced them under the yoke of the first consul, who, though he might easily have distinguished the feeble German elector from the powerful British monarch, assailed both characters with the same hostility.

In the beginning of the year 1804, it was evident that a strong party was forming itself against Mr. Addington. The general measures of government were described as bearing such a character of indecision, that the first lord of the treasury and his chief associates were supposed no longer to enjoy that degree of public confidence, without which no administration can maintain its ground. On various occasions the majorities of the court, in both houses, were very inconsiderable; and the opposition, consisting principally of Mr. Fox, lord Grenville, and Mr. Windham, derived strength from the accession of Mr. Pitt's powerful talents. Mr. Addington therefore retired from the helm, and Mr. Pitt again became prime minister: but lord Grenville was not one of his colleagues, as it was understood that he would not come in without Mr. Fox, with whom he had formed certain engagements, and who was said to be peremptorily excluded.

The war, in this year, was undistinguished by splendid operations: but the colony of Surinam was wrested from the Hollanders, and Goree was recovered soon after the French had taken possession of it.

As the Spanish government had become entirely subservient to that of France, which derived from it considerable pecuniary supplies, the English cabinet deemed it justifiable to seize any treasure which, there could be no doubt, would be only employed to strengthen the hands of the enemy; and, as four Spanish frigates richly laden were expected at Cadiz from South-America, four English frigates, under the command of captain Moore, were sent to intercept them. An action ensued, in which one of the Spanish frigates blew up with a tremendous explosion,

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and almost all on board perished. The other frigates, and the treasure which they contained, nearly amounting to four millions of dollars, were brought to Portsmouth. Thus commenced the war with Spain.

The apprehensions of a junction between the French and Spanish fleets, in 1805, suggested the expediency of a strict naval blockade. Lord Nelson was ordered to watch the enemy at Toulon; but the French fleet escaped from that port, joined the Spanish fleet, passed the strait of Gibraltar, and proceeded to the West Indies. He traversed almost the whole Mediterranean in search of them; visited Alexandria, hastily returned to Palermo for provisions, and then crossed the Atlantic. So great were his exertions, that on the 15th of May he passed twenty leagues to the eastward of Madeira, and on the 4th of June arrived at Barbadoes. The report of his approach had gone before him; his very name was a terror to the enemy; and 17 sail of French and Spanish ships retired with precipitation before a force of 11 of the same class.

Returning to Europe after his fruitless chase, lord Nelson procured such a reinforcement as increased the amount of his fleet to 27 sail of the line; and, on the 21st of October, he descried the combined fleet in the vicinity of Cape Trafalgar, presenting a line of 33 ships, of which 18 were French. About noon, the leading ships of the columns broke through the enemy's line, and the action became general. Nelson ordered the *Victory*, which bore his flag, to attack the opposite ship; and the *Temeraire*, his second, also closed with the next ship in the hostile line. Thus the four ships formed one mass, and were so close, that every gun fired from the *Victory* set the *Redoutable* on fire, while the British sailors were employed at intervals, in the greatest heat of the action, in pouring buckets of water on the flames in the enemy's vessels, lest their spreading should involve both ships in destruction! an instance of cool and deliberate bravery, perhaps not to be paralleled either in ancient or modern history. The action was equally obstinate around the *Royal Sovereign*, and in several other quarters, the enemy's ships being brought into action with the greatest gallantry; but the attack was irresistible, and a great and glorious victory was its reward. About three in the afternoon, ten sail of the line, joining the enemy's frigates to leeward, bore away to Cadiz. Five more of the headmost ships in the van tacked and stood to the southward, to windward of the British line. They were engaged, and the sternmost taken; the four others sailed off, leaving a noble prey to the British fleet, of nineteen ships of the line.

This victory, glorious as it was, was dearly purchased. Lord Nelson, in consequence of the fearless exposure of his person, received a musket-ball fired from the *Redoutable*. It struck his left shoulder, and penetrated his chest; and, after two hours of anxiety and pain, he expired. He lived long enough, however, to be assured that the triumph of his fleet was secure; and he thanked God, in a last effort, that "He had done his duty." His grateful country celebrated his obsequies with extraordinary honours. The body being brought to England, after lying in state for three days in the great hall at Greenwich, was conducted in great parade to the admiralty, and conveyed in a magnificent car, attended by one of the grandest processions ever witnessed, to St. Paul's, where it was finally deposited.

The success of the French against Austria and Russia in the course of the year 1805, will be related in our historical summary of the affairs of France. The ill success of the short-lived coalition of those two powers tended perhaps to shorten the days of Mr. Pitt, through anxiety and disappointment. The fatigues, at least, of his official duties, had probably

brought on, or hastened, that long and painful illness of which he at length died, on the 23d of January, 1806, in the 47th year of his age. That he was a person of rare and splendid qualities, a powerful orator, a skilful debater, an expert financier, even his enemies must admit; but, whether he was an able statesman, may fairly be questioned, if the assertion be not absolutely denied.

Under the auspices of Mr. Pitt, an important expedition had been projected in the preceding autumn, an armament being sent out, under the command of sir Home Popham and sir David Baird, against the cape of Good Hope, which was taken with little difficulty; and this capture gave rise to an expedition against Buenos-Ayres, which the Spaniards quickly surrendered. From the latter, the English were not long after obliged to retire with loss; but the Cape has ever since remained in our possession.

On the death of Mr. Pitt, lord Grenville was appointed first lord of the treasury; lord Howick, first lord of the admiralty; earl Spencer, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Windham, secretaries of state for the home, foreign, and war departments. The accession of Mr. Fox to power, whatever hopes it might excite in the great body of the nation, was a circumstance pregnant to himself with inconvenience and danger. On his advance to office, the perplexities of intrigue, the collision of claims, the chagrin of submitting to arrangements which he most desired to preclude, but which it seemed requisite to adopt; the prolonged contests in parliament, the frequent calls to council, and even the convivialities with which it was thought expedient to celebrate and cement a new administration, were ill calculated for the preservation of that health which appeared to be already on the decline. In a few months hydropic symptoms appeared; his disorder rapidly increased; he fell into a state of languor and depression; and thus died, within a few months after his illustrious rival, an eloquent senator, an able statesman, and a distinguished assertor of public freedom.

When a new parliament assembled, a motion in behalf of the catholics, followed by a bill intended for their relief, excited great objections from the secret advisers of his majesty. The consequence was, that the bill was given up, and the ministers were obliged to resign their posts to others who possessed more of the confidence of their sovereign. In March, 1807, the duke of Portland, lord Hawkesbury, lord Castlereagh, and Mr. Canning, became the principal ministers. These statesmen soon evinced their zeal against a feeble neutral, by the remarkable expedition to Copenhagen, of which an account has been given in our sketch of the history of Denmark. They did not seize the Portuguese navy, because the prince of Brazil, by their desire, transported himself and his court to Rio de Janeiro.

In the following year, the disordered affairs of Spain excited the anxious attention of the British cabinet. The causes and circumstances of that revolution which ensued will be more properly related in our history of Spain: but we may here observe, that, when the arts and menaces of Bonaparté had produced the resignation of Charles IV. and his son, the indignation of the people at the intrusion of a French army, and at the cruelties committed by the invaders, could not long be controlled. They took up arms in most of the provinces, and requested immediate aid from Great-Britain, forgetting that they were still at war with this country. Various supplies were quickly sent, and the natives were successful in several engagements; but the close of the campaign seemed to threaten them with ruin; and, in 1809, an army which their new allies had sent to the peninsula found itself obliged to re-embark, after the battle of Corunna, that it might not be overwhelmed by the enemy.

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While this war raged, hostilities again arose between France and Austria. The emperor was not, as it was reported, instigated to a new war by the British ministers; but he was subsidised by them as soon as he had taken arms; and, partly with a view of promoting his interest by a diversion, they sent out a great armament to the isle of Walcheren. That island was conquered; but the intention of seizing or destroying the French fleet at Antwerp was not carried into effect, as so much time had been lost in unnecessary magnitude of preparation, and in the tardy progress of the troops. This expedition was not only useless, but disastrous. The conquest was not retained; and some thousands of men perished in consequence of the autumnal fever of Walcheren.

When another army had been sent to Spain, it was exposed to great danger by the insufficiency of its amount; and it required all the skill and courage of sir Arthur Wellesley to save it from ruin. He had 22,500 men under his command; and, if the two Spanish armies which were apparently ready to co-operate with him had been animated with that undaunted and determined spirit which his troops displayed, he might have crushed the force which the usurper Joseph led against him. But, as one of the native armies did not advance to Talavera, so as to take the smallest share in the action, and as the other did not perform that important service which might reasonably have been expected from a very numerous body, breathing revenge, and armed for the defence of an endangered country, the British troops were obliged to be content with the glory of repelling 47,000 men, who were unquestionably brave, and in a high state of discipline. The French suffered a severe loss on this occasion; but they could easily repair a much greater loss; and they perceived, with joy, that the general who drove them from the field found himself obliged to retreat in his turn.

At the close of this campaign, a partial change of the ministry resulted from the death of the duke of Portland. The court condescended to invite earl Grey and lord Grenville into the cabinet; but, as those noblemen were unwilling to occupy subordinate stations, no coalition took place. Mr. Perceval was placed at the head of the treasury; and the war in Spain, which the two peers, because they were not in power, loudly condemned as unnecessary and hopeless, was prosecuted with increasing zeal.

When the parliament re-assembled, in 1810, an inquiry was instituted into the expedition to Walcheren. The popular orators endeavoured to prove, that it was an ill-judged and ill-conducted enterprise; but the majority of the house of commons entertained a different opinion. During this inquiry, an order for the exclusion of strangers gave offence to the public; and the chief speaker of a society called the British Forum ventured to condemn it in strong terms. He was sent to prison by the irritated commons; but his conduct was vindicated by sir Francis Burdett, with that freedom of remark which excited still greater indignation; and the popular baronet, for vilifying the house, and denying the legitimacy of its authority, as it did not, in his opinion, represent the people, was confined in the Tower to the end of the session. It was certainly his duty to acquiesce in the decision of the assembly; but he would not submit before violence was used, and some lives were lost in the riots which arose on this occasion.

The ensuing campaign was not particularly active, on the part of Great-Britain. When the French had again entered Portugal, they were met on the hill of Busaco by the native troops and the English, who re-

pelled them with great slaughter; yet this success did not encourage the British general to resume an offensive attitude. He selected an advantageous station for the defence of the capital, and remained in his post about five months, the French not daring to attack him. Great-Britain, at the same time, was at war with the king of Denmark, and with the Russian emperor, who had been encouraged by Bonaparté to resent the hostilities of the English in the Baltic; but these disputes in the north were not productive of very serious mischief or memorable incidents.

Near the close of this year, the return of that mental imbecility which had formerly prevented the king from continuing the exercise of his political functions, alarmed a loyal nation. He more particularly gave indications of a disordered mind, when the princess Amelia, his youngest daughter, who had been long declining in health, exhibited such appalling symptoms as precluded all expectations of her recovery. A regency now became necessary; but it was not settled without warm and acrimonious debates. The prince of Wales, as might have been expected, was appointed regent, and, although he openly expressed his disapprobation of the restrictions imposed upon his authority, he commenced his political career with patriotic good-will, and with some manifestation of spirit and vigor.

The war in the peninsula excited the chief attention of the regent. In the progress of this war, the defensive firmness of lord Wellington (formerly sir Arthur Wellesley) exhausted the patience of the French, who, in the spring of the year 1811, quitted their station in Portugal from an apprehension of famine, after losing a great number of their comrades by disease, and hastened into Spain. In their retreat they committed sanguinary outrages and brutal enormities, for which they were not sufficiently punished by the rigors of a warm and resentful pursuit. The Spanish war was still carried on, without affording the prospect of a speedy decision, although the British troops acquired fame on the banks of the Albuera, and on the hill of Barrosa.

When the restrictions upon the regent's power expired, in 1812, he made a faint attempt to draw the lords Grey and Grenville into the cabinet; but they declined all concern in the management of public affairs, while the influence of Mr. Perceval seemed to be so prevalent; and, when this minister had fallen a victim to the daring violence of an assassin, named Bellingham, who had demanded redress from the court for pretended grievances and sufferings in Russia, where he had acted in a mercantile capacity, they refused to join the earl of Liverpool and his friends. The earl, being elevated to the chief ministerial dignity, gratified the public by a revocation of those orders of the privy council, which had for some years checked the freedom of trade, and had consequently injured the manufacturing interest.

When Bonaparté found, as early as the year 1806, that the French commerce was reduced to a low ebb, while that of Great-Britain rapidly increased, he issued a decree from Berlin, prohibiting all intercourse and correspondence with the British dominions, and ordering the seizure of all commodities which had been purchased or procured from our countrymen. As this edict was answered, on the part of our court, by an ordinance, requiring all neutrals to stop at some British port, and pay a duty for the privilege of proceeding to France, the exasperated ruler of that country declared, that every vessel which should submit to the new demand should be seized and condemned as a lawful prize. The presi-

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dent and congress of the United States, resenting the conduct of both powers, prohibited all mercantile connexion with the subjects of either state; and the effect of this order was severely felt in Great-Britain. The rigors of this dispute were occasionally softened by the grant of particular licenses: yet great discontent prevailed, until the orders were annulled. The revocation did not so opportunely take place as to prevent an open rupture with the Americans; nor would it, in all probability, have had that conciliatory effect, even if it had not been so long delayed. Mr. Madison was at the head of that party which favored the French, and had been accustomed to exclaim against the selfish spirit of the British traders and the arrogance of the court; and nothing would satisfy his jealous resentment or his republican animosity, but a trial of military and naval strength with this country. His influence over the congress procured a majority of votes for war; and, in the hope of subduing a considerable portion of Canada, he gave orders for an invasion of that province. Neither the aggressors nor the defenders had a great force: but, as the former took the field with a number which trebled that of their antagonists, the latter had recourse to the savages for aid, and thus procured a supply of resolute warriors, whose hostilities were particularly dreaded by the regular troops of the United States. The battalions which brigadier Hull led into action, and subsequently another corps, were obliged to surrender themselves to captivity, to avoid destruction. This disgrace could not easily be palliated by the evasive sophistry of the Americans: but they gloried in the capture of some frigates, which, however, were far inferior to the opposing ships both in the weight of metal and in the complement of men.

The war in Spain assumed a more promising aspect. Some important fortresses were taken, but not without great loss: and, in the battle of Salamanca, lord Wellington increased his claims upon the applause and gratitude both of Britain and Spain. Some ill success, indeed, followed; yet the general effect of the campaign was auspicious to the common cause.

The ensuing campaign was more fortunate than it was expected to prove, even by those who reflected with joyful hope on the ruin of the mighty force which the infatuated ruler of France had led into the wilds of Russia. A new coalition was formed by the just indignation of the northern emperor, and the reviving energy of the king of Prussia; and, as it was not sufficiently efficacious in checking the renewed career of Napoleon, the Austrian potentate was induced, by the promise of a British subsidy and the hope of triumph, to add his force to the confederacy, which was also in some degree strengthened by the aid of Sweden. The battle of Leipsic, and other instances of success, nearly ruined the new army which blindly followed the blood-thirsty enemy of the continent; and he was obliged to restrict his efforts to the defence of his own empire. In the mean time, the great champion of Spain, having subdued that jealousy which had weakened the attachment and gratitude of the supreme junta and the people, prepared to make a decisive impression upon the French party in that kingdom. The strength of the enemy's position at Vittoria rather served to animate than to discourage him. He stormed the adjacent heights, seized every post, and obtained a complete victory. He over-ran Navarre; drove the dispirited foe to the Pyrenees; and, by invading France, pointed out to the confederates in Germany the course which they might with little danger pursue.

The prince regent encouraged his allies, by repeated persuasions and by new pecuniary grants, to act with the utmost vigor. He did not send a large army to join the troops that were preparing (in 1814) for a march

to Paris; but he ordered a considerable corps to take a position in the Netherlands. As the chief incidents of the memorable march are noticed in our history of France, it will be sufficient here to observe, that the Austrians and their gallant associates, disregarding the occasional checks which they received from the desultory fury of the hunted tyrant, boldly advanced to the French capital, and, by storming the fortifications which defended it, alarmed the inhabitants with the dread of pillage and massacre. Having no such intentions, the allied princes granted honorable terms to the capitulating citizens; and, while the conquering troops remained in the neighbourhood, the sovereignty was quietly restored to the house of Bourbon, whose representative hastened from England to secure his legitimate inheritance. Lord Wellington, leaving Bayonne under blockade, had already reached the Garonne, and received under his protection the royalists of Bourdeaux: Toulouse was taken, but not without a severe loss; and he intended to cross the country to Lyons: but the intelligence of the late success at Paris reduced him to a state of inaction.

When the French, by the treaties which their new sovereign signed with the princes who had placed him on the throne, had been obliged to abandon the territorial acquisitions of the revolutionists, and the deposed adventurer had been sent to Elba by the moderation and lenity of his adversaries, the British nation hoped to enjoy some years of peace. The Americans, however, were not yet disposed to relinquish their hostile views. They continued the war with a seeming increase of animosity; and in the excess of that feeling their opponents certainly did not yield to them. Having taken Fort-Erie, the republicans defeated a British corps; but, in the next conflict, they were disgracefully routed by a force which they greatly outnumbered. In the vicinity of the Potomac, the invaders were eminently successful; for they defeated 8000 men at Bladensburg, and captured and ravaged the city of Washington. A pacification was at length concluded; but the treaty left the disputed points unsettled.

While apparent tranquillity prevailed, the escape of Bonaparté, in 1815, re-kindled the flames of war, as his invasion of France restored him to that power which he had constantly used for the most mischievous purposes. When a respectable army, composed of British and subsidiary troops, had taken positions in the Netherlands, a Prussian host also appeared, ready for action and enterprise. Napoleon did not suffer the combined force to remain long in suspense: he advanced with seeming alacrity, and dislodged the troops of Blücher, the Prussian general, from various posts. A battle ensued near Ligny, in which the French had evidently the advantage. An engagement took place, about the same time, to the detriment of the French, who were repelled with no small loss by the troops which the duke of Wellington commanded. A conflict of far greater importance followed. The duke, whose courage was tempered with prudence and judgement, resolved for the present to stand upon the defensive; and, on the other hand, Napoleon was eager for offensive hostilities. About 85,000 men advanced, on the 18th of June, to attack the British troops and German subsidiaries, whose amount did not exceed 65,000. The duke's positions were not particularly strong; but the zeal and courage of his troops inspired him with confident hopes of repelling every assault. The British right was first attacked. Jerome Bonaparté commanded in this part of the field; and he acted with apparent courage, but did not make any permanent impression upon the hostile line. The troops of Brunswick-Wolfenbützel, eager to avenge the death of their young sovereign, who had fallen in the preceding battle,

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distinguished themselves by their determined spirit and perseverance, and, with the aid of well-served artillery, thinned the opposing ranks. The central bodies, at the same time, fiercely combated, without any visible advantage on either side. Some of those well-disciplined battalions and squadrons which were included in the British left, displayed remarkable firmness and resolution, more particularly the cavalry, by whom the cuirassiers, pronounced by their enthusiastic countrymen invincible, were repelled with great slaughter. Repeated assaults were made by the French, with that spirit which even their adversaries admired; but their courage was surpassed by the firmness with which the attacks were sustained. When the battle had raged for six hours, without the decisive preponderance of either army, a Prussian division, commanded by Bulow, approached the French right, and endeavoured, by assailing it in flank, to prevent it from giving effectual aid to the centre. Blucher was at the same time advancing with the main body; but Napoleon hoped to prevail by the redoubled energy of a new attack, before the arrival of the Prussian hero. He therefore ordered his guards to storm the post of Mont-St. Jean, with all the troops that could be easily collected; and some of the columns actually penetrated to the heart of the position, diffusing temporary disorder, but not dismay, among their opponents. The British infantry, formed into close and well-arranged bodies, were so severely harassed by the cavalry, that some of the squares were either forced, or at least were in danger of losing their compactness. The duke's example, however, and his personal endeavours to rally the disordered ranks and support each wavering phalanx, tended to check the alacrity of the foe, and to prevent a ruinous advance. Without the aid of the Prussians, the British general would now have desisted from the conflict, content with allaying the fury of the storm: but the certainty of Blucher's co-operation prompted him to move forward with all his disposable force, for an attack of the most vigorous complexion. This bold resolution was carried into immediate and decisive effect. The French centre was paralysed by the shock: the right was broken by the simultaneous efforts of the Prussians; and the left, seised with the same panic, joined in the flight. The leader of the routed host escaped with difficulty, and fled in consternation to Paris, while the Prussians, pursuing with eagerness, made great havock among the fugitives. It is supposed that 30,000 of the French were killed or wounded in this memorable conflict, called from a neighbouring village the battle of Waterloo; and it appears that, on the part of the victors, 7,700 men suffered, without reckoning the loss or the personal injury sustained in the ranks of the subsidiary troops.

The splendid success of the allies ruined the hopes and fortune of Napoleon. He was driven from the throne, and sent to St. Helena by the prince regent, to whose protection he surrendered himself. A new treaty was concluded between Great-Britain and France, confirming the restitution of all the conquered colonies and territories, except the islands of St. Lucia, Tobago, and Mauritius; and it was properly required by the allies, that eighteen fortresses should be consigned to their custody for five years, and that the French should allow during that term the continuance of 150,000 foreign soldiers in their country, to secure the return of a turbulent nation to habits of order and tranquillity.

The blessings of restored peace were not, for a considerable time, felt by the nation. Commerce, during the later years of the war, had attained a forced elevation, in consequence of the ruin of the French and Dutch trade; and agriculture and manufactures flourished in propor-

tion: but, when the contracts of the government for supplies of all kinds were suspended or greatly diminished, the sudden reduction of prices confounded the farmers; and, at the same time, the stoppage of foreign demand alarmed the manufacturers, throwing multitudes in all parts of the country out of employment. Indigence necessarily followed, and seemed to become general; and the enormous increase of the rates for the poor severely harassed the occupants of houses. The abandonment of the oppressive tax upon income, demanded from a reluctant cabinet by the spirit of the popular representatives, afforded some relief to the middle class; and liberal subscriptions saved the poor from absolute famine: yet misery long prevailed, and diffused a great degree of discontent. No other than a gradual remedy could be expected for this evil; and the good sense of a great proportion of the people taught them to wait with patience for better times. In the mean while, a new expedition called off the public attention from the anxious observance of individual misery.

It was a prevailing opinion in Europe, that Great-Britain, satisfied with the security of her own trade, had no wish to put an end to the piratical practices of the states of Barbary; and, indeed, it could not reasonably be expected that her arms and treasure should be employed for the protection of the subjects of other powers, for which she might have no other return than the illiberality of ingratitude. It was the duty of other states to defend their commerce by their own exertions, or to form a grand confederacy for the suppression of a predatory system, the toleration of which was an apparent disgrace to the humanity of Europe. The rash audacity of the pirates at length prompted them to attack even British vessels; but the menaces of lord Exmouth procured compensation for these outrages. While that commander was engaged in this expedition, the port of Bona, in which the English, by a pecuniary grant, had obtained the freedom of trade and other privileges, became the scene of a horrible massacre, perpetrated by the animosity of the infidels upon the Christians whom they found in the town. Ignorant of these atrocities, he left Algier, and returned to England, whence, with a more considerable squadron, he sailed to the African coast to chastise the brutal barbarians. Not receiving any answer to a demand of satisfaction from the Algerine dey, he proceeded, on the 27th of August, 1816, to an attack of the works which defended the harbour of the capital. He was assisted on this occasion by a small fleet belonging to the king of the Netherlands; but the greatest share of the danger was encountered, and the chief service performed, by the British seamen and marines. The batteries of the enemy were well-manned, and the effect of their fire was severely felt, as above 800 men were killed or wounded in the vessels which passed along the mole: but, in seven hours, the object of the enterprise was achieved. The batteries were then in a state of dilapidation and ruin; the vessels of war and trade were involved in flames; and the arsenal and store-houses were destroyed. Humbled by these misfortunes, the dey condescended to treat with the British admiral; and it was stipulated that all slaves should be given up without delay, and Christian slavery be abolished in his dominions. On these terms peace was concluded; but lord Exmouth was no more justified in affirming, that he had "destroyed for ever the insufferable and horrid system of Christian slavery," than a plenipotentiary would be in saying that he had established perpetual peace between his sovereign and another prince, merely because it was so stated in the first article of the treaty which he had signed.

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As the splendor which thus shone upon the nation did not remove the distress of the people, the discontent of many broke out, in the ensuing winter, into seditious outrages. A meeting having been called by some pretended friends of the poor, the populace assembled in the Spa-Fields; and, when an inflammatory speech had been delivered by a young man of the name of Watson, a numerous body attended the orator into the city, with a view of procuring fire-arms. A stranger who was found in a gun-smith's shop was shot, though not mortally wounded; and the rioters, having seized a quantity of arms and ammunition, paraded the streets, attacked the lord-mayor and the *corps de police* at the Royal Exchange without any serious effect, and were at length dispersed by the seasonable appearance of troops. Some of the instigators and agents of disturbance were apprehended; and one offender suffered death by the sentence of the law. The young demagogue escaped to North-America; but his father, who was an unemployed apothecary, was sent to prison, and tried for high-treason with some of his supposed accomplices. That they were guilty of turbulence and sedition, few were disposed to deny: but, as the jury acquitted them of the higher crime with which they were charged, they were restored to the enjoyment of freedom. In various parts of the country, many individuals who had either been engaged in transient commotions, or were suspected of entertaining views hostile to the existing government, or dangerous to the peace of society, were taken into custody, and, in consequence of the suspension of the *habeas-corpus* act, detained for several months in confinement. We ought to mention, for the credit of the earl of Liverpool and his colleagues, that, as soon as tranquillity was apparently restored, they repealed the act of suspension, and suffered the liberty of the subject to remain on its legitimate basis.

The continued distress of the manufacturers, in some of the midland counties, produced meetings and combinations which alarmed the civil power. The most serious disturbance was that which arose, in Nottinghamshire. Jeremiah Brandreth was the leader of a seditious party, which openly professed an intention of reforming the government. He went with other manufacturers to different houses, in June, 1817, demanding arms; and, in one instance, when the answer involved a refusal, he brutally fired through a window, murdering an inoffensive individual. Having augmented his party to more than a hundred men, he marched in a military form, and diffused terror over the country; but, as soon as some dragoons approached, the insurgents threw down their arms, and precipitately fled. Thirty-five of the number were apprehended; but the only persons sacrificed at the shrine of justice were Brandreth and two of his most active associates, whose death excited no feelings of compassion, except among the advocates of radical reform.

As the general distress had only been partially allayed, discontent still prevailed; and, when the prince regent opened a new parliament, in January, 1819, the public anxiety was poignant and severe. Yet the session passed without any serious disturbance. About a month after the prorogation, at the desire of a bold mal-content, named Henry Hunt, who had presided at a tumultuous meeting in Smithfield, about 50,000 persons assembled near Manchester, and were proceeding to vote intemperate resolutions, when they were assaulted by a detachment of the armed yeomanry, and (not without some loss of lives) dispersed. This outrage was termed a massacre by the people, and it excited a flame over the country. Many public bodies called for an inquiry into this unfortunate affair; but neither the two houses of parliament, nor the public in general, deemed the investigation expedient or necessary.

Reflecting on these commotions, the ministers introduced six bills, to which they procured, but not without strong remonstrances, the assent of the two houses. By one of these acts, the authors of seditious libels were ordered to be punished with additional severity; by another, meetings for the purpose of training or drilling were declared illegal; by a third act, private houses were liable to be searched for fire-arms, which, with an exception of such as were kept for defence against robbers, were to be given up to the officers employed by the magistrates; a fourth statute, without expressly prohibiting meetings for the discussion of political topics, subjected them to vexatious restrictions; and, by two others, every thing which might bear an aspect of sedition, or might have a tendency to the excitation of discontent, was discountenanced by the threats of rigorous punishment.

These were the last acts of serious importance that distinguished the reign of George the Third; but that prince had no concern in them; for, from the cause which we before stated, he had long ceased to act in a public character. While the new acts were in a course of operation, he died in the 82nd year of his age, on the 29th of January, 1820, after the longest reign recorded in the English annals. As the generality of his subjects entertained a high opinion both of his private and public character, his death occasioned that deep regret which could be allayed only by the consideration of the merit of his illustrious successor.

Accustomed to power, and prepared for action, the regent now commenced with spirit the exercise of royalty in his own name; and, while he continued the war with zeal against a foreign foe, he acted with equal vigor against the disturbers of internal peace. An affair which urged him to wield the sword of justice with spirit, occurred soon after his accession. Thistlewood, who had been concerned in the preceding commotions, devised, with other seditious mal-contents, a new scheme of outrage. They pretended that all the members of the cabinet were the most pestilent enemies of their country, and that no just or constitutional government could be expected while the king was influenced by the pernicious counsels of such men; and it was therefore, in their opinion and language, an "act of public virtue," rather than a murderous crime, to put to death these wicked ministers. An opportunity of executing their atrocious scheme would, they thought, be afforded by the meeting of the obnoxious premier and his official confederates at a cabinet-dinner; but, before the appointed time arrived, their machinations were disclosed by one whom they regarded as an accomplice, while he was in reality a spy. Being apprehended after one of them had murdered an officer of the police, they were tried, convicted, and condemned to death. Thistlewood declared that he had not enjoyed the benefit of a fair trial, and that only the most profligate wretches had given evidence against him; but he could not expect that this bold assertion would operate in his favor. He and four of his associates suffered death, some with coolness, others with the most hardened effrontery.

The country was also thrown into a high degree of agitation by the return of the queen from the continent. This lady was the princess of Brunswick, whom her husband, from personal dislike, had discarded about a year after his marriage, and whose conduct at length excited unfavorable suspicions. Exasperated at her defiance of his authority, as he had offered her a handsome settlement on the condition of her remaining abroad, he resolved to subject her to a parliamentary prosecution. She was tried by the house of peers; many witnesses were examined against her; and the lords, by a majority of nine, voted for the "bill of pains

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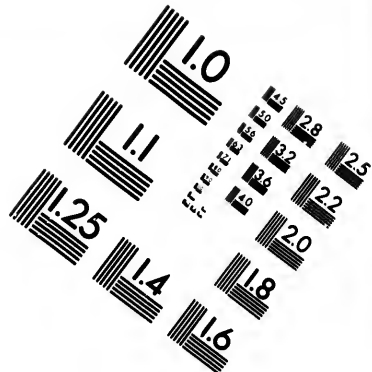
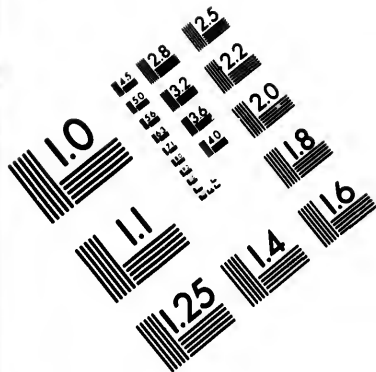
and penalties;" but the prime minister, not satisfied with this appearance of triumph, relinquished the bill, although some of his colleagues exhorted him to persist in it. The abandonment of the bill was regarded as a triumph by the queen and her friends, and the metropolis was, for three nights, illuminated on the occasion: but it is proper to add, that the boasted triumph was unsatisfactory; for, although the same income was voted which had been promised to her before her return to England, two of her requests were peremptorily refused. One was, that her name should be specified in the liturgy; the other, that she should be crowned with the king. She now considered herself as stigmatised and disgraced: yet she was not discouraged from appearing occasionally in public. She not only enjoyed the society of select friends, but frequented various places of resort with seeming contentment, if not with cheerfulness. She was witnessing a theatrical entertainment, when the effect of an internal disease induced her to retire. Medical aid proved fruitless, and the hand of death smote her with irresistible force.

The king, in the mean time, observed, with an anxious eye, the state of affairs on the continent. He wished that Spain, Portugal, and Naples, might be favored with representative governments, but did not exactly approve the mode in which the insurgents of those countries effected their respective revolutions; nor was he inclined to countenance the Greeks in that revolt to which they had been encouraged by the example of other communities, rather than impelled by any recent acts of outrageous tyranny. The generality of our countrymen seemed to wish success to the revolutionary party in each of these states; but our government, for a considerable time, denied or doubted the propriety of interference.

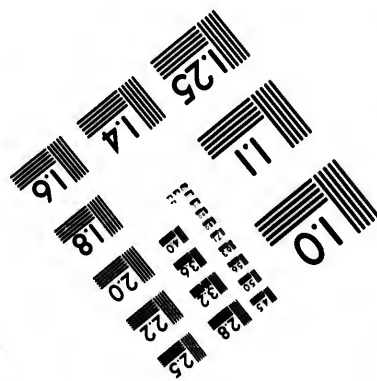
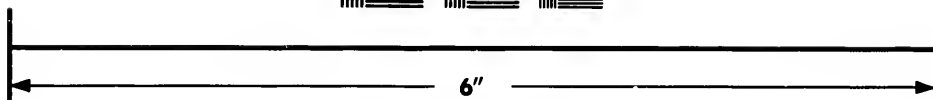
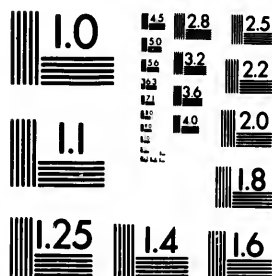
While these political disputes attracted the serious attention of the cabinet, the distress of the agricultural part of the community, which had been allayed for a time, became more severe than any one could reasonably have expected. Many farms were given up for want of the means of cultivation: many land-holders were impoverished by the loss of their rents; and their complaints and remonstrances induced the ministers, in 1822, to make new regulations in the system of the corn laws, more favorable to them than to the public in general. In the same session, the parliament, while it disgusted the stock-holders, relieved the over-burthened payers of the interest of the national debt, by a reduction of the five per cent. funds to four; and it was also resolved, that the Bank should resume payments in cash, which for many years the directors had been allowed to withhold. A more important change was made in the commercial concerns of the kingdom. The parliament relaxed the rigor of the navigation laws, and gave, in various respects, proofs of the dereliction of old prejudices, from an idea that a freedom of trade would be beneficial to the major part of the community, though it might be injurious to the artisans in particular branches,—for instance, in the silken manufacture, in which the French are so distinguished. Mr. Huskisson was the chief adviser of this innovation; and, as it was reinforced by the suggestions of Mr. Canning, the earl of Liverpool was at length induced to agree to it. The good effects of this liberality have not yet appeared, because few other powers have been willing to promote our views by similar concessions.

The minister who, for some years, had taken the most active part in the business of the parliament and the nation, was the marquis of Londonderry, who, though not an able speaker, was a skilful manager of the house of commons. Amidst the fatigues of public duty, he manifested occasional symptoms of derangement: he lost his recollection, and became feverish and irritable; and, being for a short time left alone, he pierced himself with a penknife in the jugular vein. He was succeeded as





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secretary for foreign affairs by Mr. Canning, whom he had formerly challenged and wounded for what he considered as insidious rivalry.

A congress had been ordered at Verona for the consideration and settlement of the affairs of Europe, and the marquis had been deputed to represent our sovereign in that assembly. On his death, the duke of Wellington became a negotiator, and earnestly endeavoured to dissuade the continental princes from their scheme of violent interference in the concerns of Spain: but the emperors of Austria and Russia declared that it was absolutely necessary to interpose, and, at their desire, the king of France, being more particularly interested in the event, readily consented to undertake the task of coercion.

Soon after the prorogation of the parliament, his Britannic majesty, who, in the preceding year, had visited Ireland and the Hanoverian realm, honored Scotland with his presence. His reception in that country was less warm in appearance than that which had greeted him in Ireland; but, in all probability, it was equally cordial. These visits seemed to be the more agreeable, as the late king had confined his excursions to the narrow limits of England, and George I. and II. had never felt themselves disposed to visit either North-Britain or Ireland.

When the king re-assembled his parliamentary subjects, in 1823, he declared that he had used his most anxious endeavours to avert a war between France and Spain; and the prime minister spoke more strongly on the subject, intimating that the proposed attack upon an unoffending nation was both unwise and unjust. The leaders of opposition blamed the court for not supporting its negotiation in this case by a show of force; but the majority, in both houses, vindicated the conduct of the ministry. The other business of the session was not particularly important; but it was beneficial in one respect, namely, a diminution of the burthens of the people.

When the progress of the contest, both in North and South America, between the Spaniards and the colonists, had extinguished, on the part of Ferdinand, all reasonable hopes of reclaiming the revolters, our court resolved to send consuls to each of the new states, alleging that the only ground of refusing such a connexion was removed by the impracticability of restoring the tie between them and the mother-country. The Spanish court warmly remonstrated against the bold decision of our cabinet, and the allied powers of the continent were shocked at this encouragement of rebellion; still more were they displeased when the commercial agreements were strengthened by more explicit stipulations, and by an open acknowledgement of the independent governments: but Mr. Canning and his colleagues defied the indignation of the offended potentates.

The British commerce, if not considerably augmented by these treaties, (for it had been freely carried on in those parts long before), obtained additional security; but our merchants, in the zeal of over-trading, overstocked these and all other foreign markets; and this sanguine spirit, combined with the rage for new joint-stock companies, and all sorts of idle and wanton speculation, gradually led to serious distress, which reached its *acme* in the year 1826. The number of bankruptcies then exceeded all former estimates; and almost every branch of trade suffered a great depression. The liberality of the king was displayed in frequent and considerable donations for the relief of the distressed manufacturers; but the parliament did not deem it necessary to vote the public money on this occasion. The ministers alleged that such a grant would form a bad precedent, as it would teach the people to rely too confidently on future grants, and that it would be more advisable to trust to the progress of time, the ordinary course of events, and the effect of patience. They waited for these remedies, and the clamor subsided.

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While the distress was yet unallayed, a dissolution of parliament was ordered. The contests for seats were not so numerous as they had generally been; yet some counties and boroughs were vehemently disputed, not without incidental riots. The chief questions which divided the electors were, the expediency of revising and altering the corn laws, and the propriety of acceding to the claims of the catholics. As far as we can judge from the new elections, the former point will probably be allowed in the approaching session; but the latter will long remain a subject of dispute, because the policy of the grant may very reasonably be questioned. The catholics may be tolerated without danger; but they cannot safely be admitted to power, under a government which is professedly and constitutionally protestant.

George (Augustus Frederic) IV. was born on the 12th of August, 1762. His mother was Charlotte, princess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, who died in November, 1818. He espoused, April 8, 1795, his cousin, the princess Caroline of Brunswick, by whom he had one daughter, Charlotte Augusta, who was married in May, 1816, to the prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, but died in the ensuing year, to the great regret of the nation.

Brothers and sisters of the king, now living:

Frederic, duke of York, born August 16, 1763; married, in September, 1791, to the princess Frederica of Prussia, who died without issue.

William Henry, duke of Clarence, born August 21, 1765; married, in July, 1818, to Adelaide, princess of Saxe-Meinungen.

Charlotte Augusta Matilda, born Sept. 29, 1766; married in May, 1797, to Frederic, prince (afterward king) of Wurtemberg.

Augusta Sophia, born November 8, 1768.

Elizabeth, born May 22, 1770; married, in 1818, to the hereditary prince (now landgrave) of Hesse-Homburg.

Ernest Augustus, duke of Cumberland, born June 5, 1771; married, in 1815, to his cousin Frederica, princess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, by whom he has a son.

Augustus Frederic, duke of Sussex, born January 27, 1773.

Adolphus Frederic, duke of Cambridge, born February 24, 1774; married, in 1818, to a princess of Hesse-Cassel.

Mary, born April 25, 1776; married, in 1816, to her cousin the duke of Gloucester.

Sophia, born November 3, 1777.

The king's brother, Edward duke of Kent, died in 1820, in his 53rd year, leaving, by a sister of the prince Leopold, a daughter named Alexandrina, born in 1819.

WALES.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Breadth 130	}	between
Length 90		
		{ 51,26 and 53,25, North latitude.
		{ 2,41 and 5,20, West longitude.

Wales contains 7425 square miles, with more than 102 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] The Welsh are supposed to be the descendants of the Cymraig Gauls, who made a settlement in England before the first descent of Julius Cæsar.

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at present; but, after the Saxons had made themselves masters of the southern and midland parts of England, the Welsh, or the descendants of the ancient Britons, were obliged gradually to retreat to the westward. It does not however appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conquests in their country than Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, which are now reckoned parts of England. Wales is divided into twelve counties: those of Montgomery, Merioneth, Denbigh, Caernarvon, Flint, and Anglesey, form the northern division; while the southern portion comprehends the shires of Glamorgan, Caermarthen, Pembroke, Cardigan, Radnor, and Brecknock.

MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS.] Wales abounds in mountains, especially in the northern part. Snowdon and Cader-Idris are the principal: the height of the former is 3568 feet above the level of the sea. The mountainous situation of the country greatly assisted the natives in withstanding the assaults of the Romans, Saxons, and Normans.

The ascent of Snowdon is toilsome and terrific. After passing over craggy rocks, the traveler reaches a verdant expanse; and he then labors up another series of crags. The mountain seems propped up by four vast buttresses, between which are deep hollows, having one or more lakes lodged in them. It is bicapitated; the higher head rises almost to a point; the other appears with serrated tops. Cader-Idris is steep and craggy on every side; and the southern descent is nearly perpendicular. The summit rises to the height of 2850 feet above Dolgelle. Of these two mountains, the chief rocky ingredients are granite and porphyry. Plinlimmon is also a considerable mountain, dignified by the rise of some fine rivers.

The Welsh lakes are very numerous; but they are in general small and unimportant. That of Bala, called Llyn-Tegid, is about four miles in length, and less than a mile in breadth. Its greatest depth is forty feet. The Dee, with little probability, is said to pass through it without a communication of water. Llyn-Savathan, in the shire of Brecknock, is famous for the multitude of its fish.

A considerable number of rivers diffuse over the principality their fertilising streams. The Severn rises in a chalybeate spring, on the eastern side of Plinlimmon, becomes navigable near Welsh-Pool, passes through several English counties, and at length contributes to the formation of the Bristol channel. On the southern side of the same mountain the Wye starts into existence, and, after a devious course, falls into the Severn below Chepstow. The Dee is formed by the junction of two small streams in Merionethshire, and is enlarged into an æstuary below Chester. A picturesque vale in Denbighshire derives its appellation from the Clwyd; the rapid Conway flows through a beautiful vale, and is navigable from Trefriew to the Irish sea: the Tivy and the Towy are also not undistinguished among the rivers of this interesting country.

Many canals were formed in Wales during the reign of George III. Some of them occasionally pass under the highlands through tunnels; and one is carried over the Dee at Pont-Cyssylte, between Llangollen and Chirk; by an aqueduct composed of plates of cast iron, supported upon stone pillars, some of which are 125 feet in height.

METALS, MINERALS.] Wales contains many quarries of free-stone and slate, several mines of lead and iron, and abundance of coal-pits. The Parrys mountain, in Anglesey, 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 in 1768. At Llanberis,

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and near Pont-Aberglaslyn, mines of copper have been found, the ore of which is superior in quality to that of Anglesey. The mine at Llanvair, and that of Cwmsimlog, contain silver, lead, and quartz.

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 toward 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 afford excellent beef; and the 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 near the sea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the tide. In Flintshire is St. Winefred's-well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. The spring boils with great impetuosity out of a rock, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch, supported by pillars; and the roof is 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. Winefred in 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a present 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. Near Carmarthen is a fountain, which, like the sea, ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } The inhabitants of Wales nearly
MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } amount to 760,000, of which number Glamorganshire contains about a seventh part. The Welsh 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 æra. It is however certain; that a 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, particularly Taliessin, who lived about the year 560, 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 Welsh the descendants of the ancient Trojans. This poetical genius seems to have inspired the ancient Welsh with an enthusiasm for independence; for which reason Edward I. is said to have perpetrated a general massacre of the bards; an inhumanity which was characteristic of that ambitious prince. The Welsh are more an unmixed people than most other nations, and were long remarkable for maintaining the ancient hospitality, and for their adherence to ancient customs and manners. This appeared even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the caprices of fashion.

Some of the customs of the Welsh peasants are remarkable. One, which is indeed declining, is rather indelicate. A lover is allowed by the parents of his favorite, or by her master, to converse with her in a bed-chamber between blankets: and it would perhaps be a libel to affirm

that any improper familiarity takes place at these interviews. When a marriage is fixed upon, a friend goes about the neighbourhood as a *bidder*, and invites the people to bring presents, which are returned on similar occasions. At a funeral, provisions are sometimes given over the body to poor persons of the same sex with the deceased, who are expected to bring herbs and flowers, which are put into the coffin. All who are present then kneel down, and the Lord's prayer is repeated; and, at every cross-way, in the progress toward the church, the same ceremony is renewed. Flowers are also planted over the grave, and varied in their species according to the age of the defunct.

Credulity and superstition are still parts of the Welsh character. Many continue to believe in the existence and influence of spirits; and they are apt to be deluded by itinerant Methodists into an adoption of sectarian principles and all the mysteries of grace.

CITIES, TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Wales contains no cities or towns that are remarkable either for populousness or magnificence. Wrexham, in Denbighshire, is a well-built town, with a fine church, and it is a great mart for flannel. Caernarvon has a good harbour, is frequented as a bathing-place, and exhibits the remains of a stately castle. Amlwch in Anglesey, before the year 1768, was a small and wretched village; but the discovery of the valuable copper-mines in the neighbourhood raised it to a considerable town. The best-built town in South-Wales, except Swansea, is Carmarthen, and its inhabitants, with the same exception, are the most polished. Swansea is a place of great resort for bathing and for amusements: it is the most populous town in Wales, having 10,500 inhabitants. Cardigan is a thriving town, situated in the vicinity of lead-mines. Brecknock has some manufactures of cloth and hose; and its situation is picturesque and romantic. Cardiff has a commodious harbour, in which various articles of traffic are shipped for Bristol. It also sends out great quantities of iron, which it receives by a canal from Merthyr-Tydvil, a flourishing town, enriched within our memory by the discovery of mines of lead and coal.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welsh have some inland trade, and send to England a great number of cattle. Swansea has considerable copper and iron works, a pottery and rope-walks; and employs many vessels in the exportation of stone, coal, and other useful articles. Pembroke also, which enjoys the benefit of the great haven of Milford, carries on a lucrative trade. Some branches of the woollen manufacture occupy many of the people in different counties; and the Welsh flannel is preferred to that of England.

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 modeled according to the English form, and the inhabitants were admitted to a participation of all the English liberties and privileges, particularly that of sending members to parliament. By the 34th and 35th of the same reign, four circuits were ordained for the administration of justice, each of which was to include three shires. By the 18th of queen Elizabeth, an assistant was given to each of the former judges.

RELIGION.] The established religion of 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 catholics. The principality also contains a great number of protestant dissenters.

For **BISHOPRICS**,—see England. In former times, Wales contained

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more bishoprics than it does now; and, about the time of the Norman invasion, the religious foundations in that country 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 first persecuted in England. The Welsh and Scots dispute about the nativity of some learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas: but there is no doubt of the Cambrian birth of Giraldus, an ingenious writer, who lived in the time of Henry II.; and Leland mentions several learned men of the same country, who flourished before the Reformation. Since that period, Wales has produced several excellent antiquaries and divines, and other distinguished men; and, notwithstanding all that Dr. Hickes and other antiquaries have said to the contrary, it furnished the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet, as is clearly demonstrated by Mr. Llhuyd, and confirmed by monumental inscriptions. The history of Henry VIII., written by lord Herbert of Chisbury, may be mentioned as a valuable production of Welsh literature; but it ought to be observed, that he is grossly partial to the memory of that tyrant. In modern times, the Welsh may boast of the merit of Mr. Pennant, an able and accurate naturalist, and an intelligent and amusing tourist.

[LANGUAGE.] The Welsh have still preserved their ancient language, which is a branch of the Celtic, though considerably different from the Erse or Irish. The Lord's prayer, in that dialect, is as follows:

Ein Tad, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd, sancteiddier dy enw: deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y ddaear, megis y mae yn y nefoedd: dyro i ni heddyw ein bara 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 eiddod 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 of large dimensions; and, in some, the remains of Roman architecture are plainly discernible. 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 visible in the isle of Anglesey, which was the chief seminary of the Druids. Caerphili castle in Glamorganshire is said to have been the largest in Great-Britain, except Windsor; and the remains of it show that it was a most beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, while 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 the Silures, Dimetæ, and Ordovices, who were never entirely subdued by the Romans, though part of their country was bridled by garrisons; and, during the sway of the Saxons in England, they remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and laws. They 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, the old and infirm prince Llewelyn, in order to be safe from the persecutions of his undutiful son Gryffyth, having put himself under the protection of Henry III., to whom he did homage. But no captu-

lation could satisfy the ambition of Edward I., who resolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and, as young Llewelyn disdained the idea of subjection, Edward raised an army, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and, taking possession of the isle of Anglesey, drove the Welsh to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to consent to a tribute. They renounced this disgraceful stipulation, and, in 1282, attacked the fortresses which Edward had erected in their country: but their gallant prince was defeated and slain. 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 the king, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to the crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that he gave orders for the massacre of the Welsh bards. Perceiving that this cruelty was not sufficient to complete his conquest, he sent his queen, in 1284, to be delivered in Caernarvon castle, that the Welsh, 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 descended to the eldest sons of the English kings. The history of Wales and England may from that time be deemed inseparable. We may here observe, that the kings of England found it their interest to soothe the Welsh with particular marks of 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. But, in the reign of Henry VIII., these arrangements were no longer deemed politic or necessary.

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 about twenty-two 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 raised here in one year than could be consumed by the inhabitants in eight; and it is supposed that its present produce, under the great improvement of agriculture, and with the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increase of population. Hills, which afford fine pasture for sheep, extend from east to west, through the middle of the island. The interior parts of the island, as well as its extremities, present many 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. The farm-houses in general are built of stone, and even the cottages are neat and comfortable.

From the purity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the beauty and variety of the landscapes of this island, 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.

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It is divided into thirty parishes. According to an accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to eighteen thousand and twenty-four, exclusive of the troops quartered there: in 1811, the number exceeded 24,000; and, in 1821, 31,600 composed the amount.

Newport stands nearly in the centre of the island, of which it may be considered as the capital. It derives some benefit in point of trade from the Medina, which, though not a considerable river, is navigable to the sea at West-Cowes. Three of its streets extend from east to west, and are crossed at right angles by three others, which are spacious, clean, and well-paved.

Carisbroke castle, in this island, has been rendered remarkable by the imprisonment of king Charles I. After his decapitation, it was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter Elizabeth died in it. There are several other forts in this island, which were erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII.

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 Bretagne.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans, and lies farthest within the bay, 18 miles west of Normandy. The north side is inaccessible through lofty cliffs; the south is almost level with the water; the higher land, in the midland part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards. The valleys are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain cattle and sheep in abundance. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of fruit, the prosecution of commerce, and more 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 spot.

The island is twelve miles in length, and six in breadth; and it is divided into twelve parishes. In Camden's time, it was said, there was here no business for a physician; but, though the air is salubrious, medical advice is occasionally found necessary. The inhabitants are in number about 25,000. The capital town of St. Helier, or Hilary, has a good harbour and castle, and makes a handsome appearance. The current language is French, with which English words are intermingled. Knitstockings and caps form the staple commodities; but the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in fish with Newfoundland, and dispose of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown; but the civil administration rests with a bailiff, assisted by twelve jurats. As this island is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preserves the old feudal forms, and particularly the assembly of states, which is, as it were, a miniature of the British parliament, as settled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is about twelve miles from south-west to north-east, and eleven where broadest, east and west. It is divided into ten parishes, which have only eight churches. Though this is naturally a finer island than that of Jersey, it is less valuable, because it is not so well cultivated, or so populous. Want of fuel is the greatest inconvenience under which both islands labor. The administrative convention consists of a governor, coroners, jurats, clergy, and constables. The islanders have commercial

concerns with Newfoundland and the Mediterranean. The staple manufacture is knit stockings. The only harbour here is at St. Pierre-le-Port, which is guarded by two forts.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compass, and is separated from Normandy by a strait called the Race, 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, extending near three leagues, lie the rocks called the Caskets, among which are several very dangerous whirlpools or eddies. This island is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a dependency 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, in the aggregate, are thought to be about 22,000. In all the four islands the religion is that of the church of England.

The SCILLY ISLES are a numerous cluster of dangerous rocks, situated about thirty miles from the Land's End in Cornwall. By their situation between the English Channel and that of St. George, they have occasioned the destruction of many ships and lives. Sir Cloudeley Shovel, returning from a fruitless expedition against Toulon, was lost here in October, 1707, with about 900 seamen; and two other ships foundered at the same time. St. Mary's is the largest of these islands, being about nine miles in circumference, and containing as many houses and inhabitants as all the rest. It has a good harbour, with a population of about 800 persons.

The ISLE OF MAN is in St. George's Channel, almost at an equal distance from England, Scotland, and Ireland. The *Mona* mentioned by Tacitus was not this island, but Anglesey. *Mona*, indeed, seems to have been a generic name with the ancients for any detached island. The length of Man, from north to south, is thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen. The air is wholesome, and the climate nearly the same as that in the north of England. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulse. Of the mountains, which nearly divide the island, and which both protect and fertilise the valleys, the highest is Sneafell, which rises more than 2000 feet above the sea. The coasts abound with sea-fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit-holes, are almost lumps of fat, and esteemed very delicious. Mines of iron, lead, and copper, and quarries of marble and slate, are found in various parts of the island. It contains seventeen parishes, and four towns on the coast. Castle-town is the seat of its government. Peele flourishes much more than it formerly did: 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. It contains about 950 houses: the buildings are lofty, but the streets are narrow and close. Ramsay has likewise a considerable commerce, on account of its spacious bay, in which ships may ride safe from all winds except the north-east.

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, who presided over the diocese of Man for more than fifty-seven years, and died in 1755, at the age of ninety-one. He was eminently distinguished for his piety, benevolence, and hospitality,

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and his unremitting attention to the happiness of the people intrusted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, established schools, translated some of his devotional pieces into the Manks' language, and founded libraries in every parish. 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 island, 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 afford a competent support to those incumbents who are not devoted to luxury. The language is radically Erse, or Irish, with a mixture of other dialects. The natives, who amount to about 33,000, are offensive, charitable and hospitable. The superior inhabitants live in stone houses, and the poor in thatched huts; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation consist of wool, hides, and tallow.

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 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 so few of their names, they undoubtedly were for some ages masters of those seas. About the year 1263, Alexander III. king of Scotland, a spirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the superiority of Man, and obliged the 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 English monarchs 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 the earl of Salisbury. His family honors and estate being forfeited, Henry IV. bestowed Man, and the patronage of the bishopric, first upon the Northumberland family, and, that being disgraced, 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 regalities and customs of the island from the Athol family; and the bargain was completed by the payment of 70,000*l.* to the duke in 1765. This agreement was considered, at the time, as final: but Mr. Pitt procured from the parliament, in 1805, the grant of a large additional sum to the courtly peer, on pretence of the extraordinary increase in the value of the island. The king has now the same rights, powers, and prerogatives, which the duke formerly enjoyed; but the peer retains his territorial property in the island, and the inhabitants also preserve 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 27,500 square miles, with more than 72 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 inhabitants of the Highlands still call themselves. After the expiration of the Roman power, Scotland became the country of the Picts or Peohts, a colony from the south of Norway. At length, in the eleventh century, the Scots coming over from Ireland and establishing themselves in Scotland, the name of *Scotia* was transferred to the country.

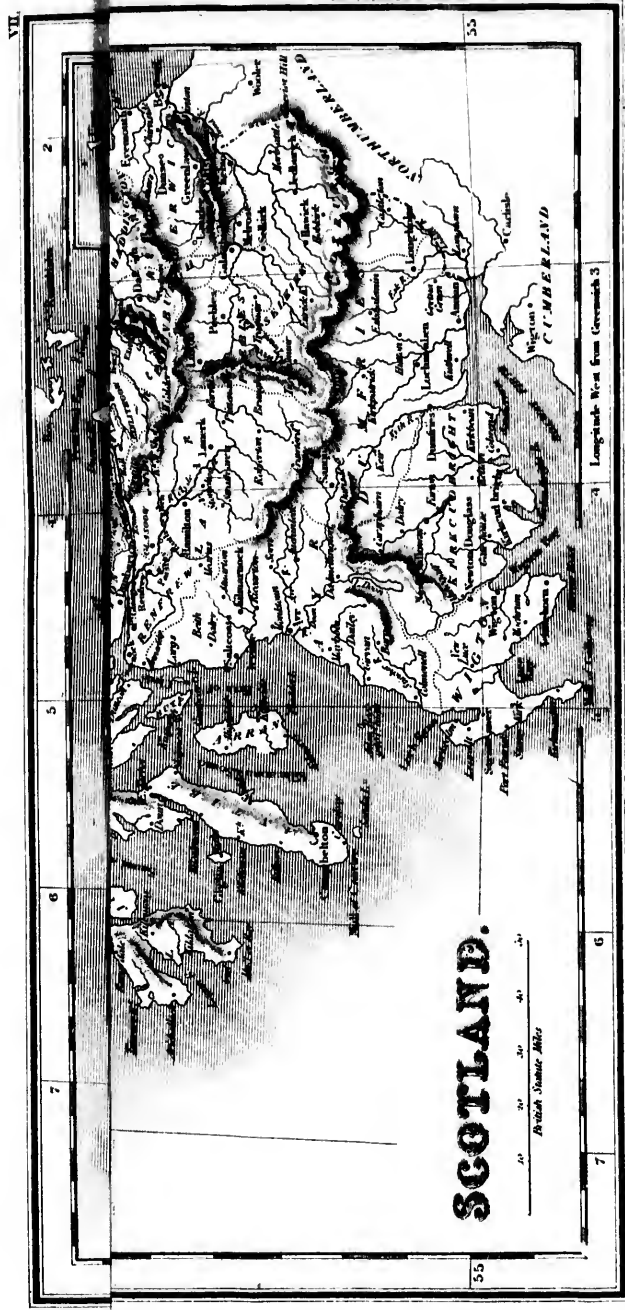
BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] Scotland is bounded on the south by England; and on the north, east, and west, by the Deucaledonian, German, and Irish seas, or more properly the Atlantic ocean. It is divided into the counties south of the Frith of Forth, and those to the north of the same river. This was the ancient national division; but some modern writers 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, stewardries, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders. The most populous of these counties are those of Lanark, Edinburgh, Aberdeen, Perth, Ayr, Fife, and Forfar; while the most insignificant in point of population are those of Selkirk and Kinross. The western isles are included in three counties, the northern parts of the group being assigned to the shire of Ross, the middle to that of Inverness, and the southern to Argyleshire.

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. Argyle-shire, the western part of Perthshire, and the counties of Ross, Sutherland, and Caithness, are the parts which are usually comprehended under the denomination of Highlands. The nudity of the country in many parts, in consequence of the want of wood, is generally observed by visitors from the south; but the extensive plantations of trees, formed during many years past by the nobility and gentry, must greatly remedy this defect. Scotland is in general diversified with a pleasing intermixture of natural objects. The vast inequalities of the ground, if unfavorable to the labors of the husbandman, are particularly pleasing to a traveler, and afford those delightful situations for country houses, of which many of the opulent inhabitants have so judiciously availed themselves. It is their situation, more than any expensive magnificence, that renders the seats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of the earl of Hopetoun, and many others, so striking.

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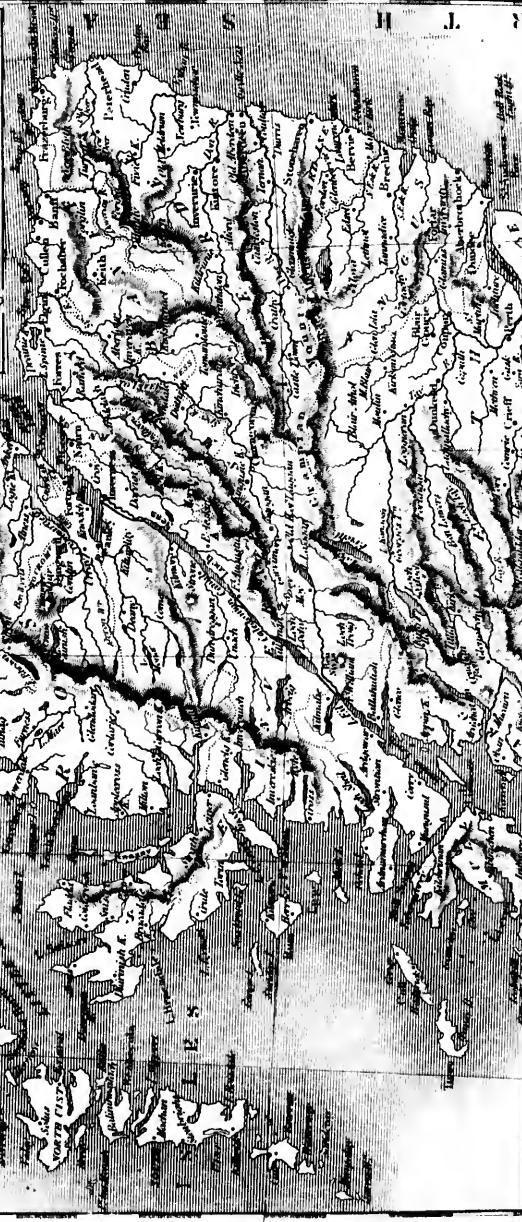
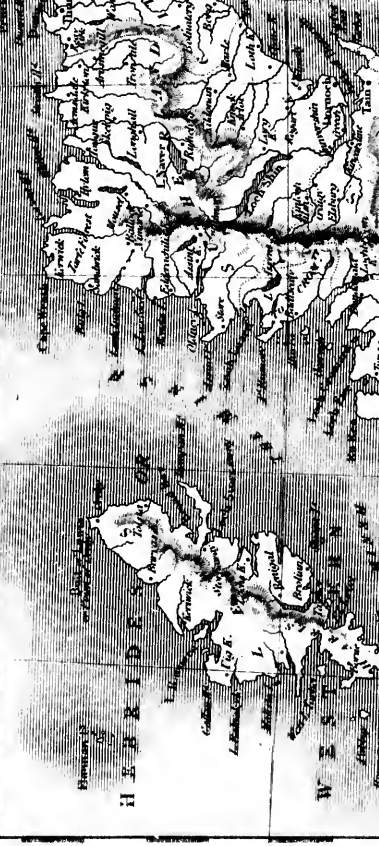
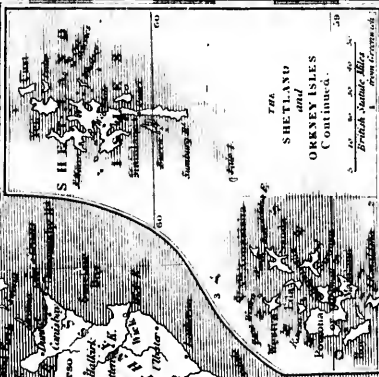
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London Published May 15, 1857, by J. Maunman, & the other Proprietors.

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SCOTLAND.

British Nautical Miles

Longest scale West from Greenwich 3

London Published May 1st 1857 by J. Mansman & the other Proprietors.

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MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian Hills, which run from east to west, from the vicinity of Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleshire, almost the whole breadth of the kingdom. The Pentland Hills run through Lothian, and join those of Tweed-dale. A third chain, called Lammer-Muir, rises near the eastern coast, and runs westward through the Merse. Beside those chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Teviot Hills on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, are sometimes called by the Celtic name, *Laws*. A remarkable mountain 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 usually covered with snow. Cairngorm rises to the height of 4060 feet, and generally has a snowy top.

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, Parff, Reay, and Broachlitive. Fir-trees grow in perfection almost all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scottish oak is excellent in the Highlands, where some woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth.

LAKES.] The lochs or lakes of Scotland are too numerous to be particularly described. Loch-Tay, Loch-Lomond, Loch-Ness, Loch-Au, and one or two more, present us with such picturesque scenes as are scarcely equaled in any other country of Europe. Several of these lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain great quantities of fresh-water fish. The Scots sometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the sea; for example, Loch-Fyn, which is 60 miles long, and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings. The loch of Spynie, near Elgin, is remarkable for swans, which are tempted, as some think, by the attractions of the plant *olorina*. 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, only 17 miles from it, the Lake Loch-Anwyn, or Green Lake, is constantly covered with ice. The ancient province of Locharaber 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 bays of Glenluce and Wigton: sometimes they are called *friths*, as the Solway Frith, which separates Scotland from England on the west, the friths of Forth, Moray, Cromartie, and Dornoch.

RIVERS.] The largest river in Scotland is the Forth, which rises in the southern part of Perthshire, and, passing by Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, discharges itself near Edinburgh into an arm of the German sea. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which issues out of Loch-Tay, and, running to the south-east, passes the town of Perth, and falls into the sea at Dundee. The Spey, 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; while the rivers Dee and Don, which run from west to east, disembogue themselves at Aberdeen. The Tweed rises on the borders of Lanarkshire; and, after many windings, it discharges itself into the sea at Berwick, serving 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 to the north-west, and, after passing by Lanark, Hamilton, Glasgow, Renfrew, Dunbarton, and Greenock, falls into the frith of Clyde, opposite to the isle of Bute. Beside these principal rivers, Scotland contains many of inferior note, 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. It is deeper and wider than any English canal. Its length is 35 miles; and, in the course of the navigation, the vessels are raised, by means of 20 locks, to the height of 155 feet above the level of the sea. Proceeding on the summit of the country, for 18 miles, it then descends by 19 other locks to 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 Frith, near 600 miles.

Another great work of this kind is styled the Caledonian canal, which forms a communication between the east and west seas. Among the early operations connected with this canal, it was thought necessary to form new courses for the rivers Spean and Ness, that the canal might occupy the old bed of each river; and, as the work proceeded, some locks were deepened, so as to form an useful part of the line. The expense of this undertaking was enormous; but, as it was defrayed by the parliament, it was not seriously felt; and its advantages have already been very considerable and important.

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-Muir; and, when the former married the French king's daughter, a number of covered dishes, filled with coins of Scottish 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 from their works, which since that time have not 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 the beautiful coins of James V., called bonnet pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland.

The lead-mines of Scotland are very productive and profitable, and contain considerable 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

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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 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 a greater plenty of iron ore, both in mines and stones, than Scotland; from which the proprietors derive great 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 epidemic distempers. In the neighbourhood of some high mountains, however, 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, it is 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 Scotland as in England.

The soil may be rendered, in many parts, nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even said that some parts of the Lowlands exceed in value English estates of the same extent, because they are less exhausted 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 Scottish landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

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 of 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 coast produces the *alga marina*, and other weeds or 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. Wolves were not extirpated before the year 1680, and the wild cats have not yet disappeared. The red deer and roe-buck are found in the Highlands; but their flesh is not comparable to English venison. Hares are much more abundant than deer. The heath-cock, a most delicious bird, the capperkally, and the ptarmigan, are also found by sportsmen; but these birds are scarce even in the Highlands, and, when discovered, are very shy. Eagles and beautiful falcons are not infrequent here, and the shores abound in various kinds of sea-fowl. The numbers of black-cattle that cover the hills toward the Highlands, and sheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweed-dale, and in 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 Scottish kings took great pains to improve the breed of 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 unfavorable to those animals; 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, however, have been made in our time, to introduce the English and foreign breeds, and such care has been taken to provide them with proper food and management, that success has almost equaled the most sanguine expectations.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Traces of ancient volcanoes are not infrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finhaven is one instance; and the hill of Bergonium, near Dunstaffage castle, is another, yielding vast quantities of pumices or *scoriae* 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 as crystal, found with great quantities of oyster and other sea-shells, on the top of a mountain called Scorna-Lappich, in Ross-shire, at the distance of twenty miles from the sea. Slanes, in Aberdeenshire, is 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. Like other mountainous countries, Scotland abounds in wild and picturesque scenes, rocks, cataracts, and caverns.

POPULATION.] The population of Scotland, in 1755, was only 1,265,380; but by the returns made to the population bill, in 1801, the number stated was 1,599,068; and the addition of 8690, the estimated number of inhabitants in the places from which no regular returns were made, increased the amount to 1,607,758. In 1811, the regular enumeration swelled the list to 1,805,688, exclusive of the army and navy, and sea-men in registered vessels; and, ten years afterwards, the number exceeded two millions.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned; and a kind of characteristic 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 produced or stimulated by their laws of succession, which invested the elder brother, as head of the family, with the inheritance, and left a very scanty portion for the other sons. This obliged the latter to seek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native soil than the Scots in general have. It is true, this disparity of fortune, among the sons of one family, prevails likewise in England; but the resources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared with 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, arose from 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, except some, who were endowed with extraordinary virtues, were considered only as commanders of the army in the time of war; for, during peace, their civil authority was so circumscribed, 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

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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 out-rying each other created perpetual animosities, which seldom 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. But, after the rebellion of the year 1745, Archibald, duke of Argyle, had the patriotism to attempt to reform his dependents, and to banish from them those barbarous ideas. His example was followed by other nobles; and the Highlanders were gradually reconciled to 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 adapt 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 œconomy. Hence they save their money and their constitutions; and, more particularly during the last century, few instances of murder, or of other atrocious crimes, occurred in Scotland; yet it must be observed with regret, that the Scottish morality has declined in our own times, in proportion to the increase of luxury.

The people seldom used to enter singly upon any daring enterprise; but, when they acted in concert, the secrecy, sagacity, and resolution, with which they carried on any bold undertaking, were not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the strongest temptations arising from their poverty, was still more extraordinary. Their mobs were managed with all the caution of conspiracies; more particularly that which put Porteus to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government: though the agents in this bold scheme were well known, and some of them apprehended and put on their trials, with a reward of 500*l.* annexed to their conviction, no evidence could be found sufficient to bring them to punishment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both sexes, under still greater temptation, to the young pretender, after his defeat at Culloden, could scarcely be believed, were it not well attested.

The inhabitants of those parts of Scotland, in which pasturage flourishes, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful simplicity of the Scottish tunes is relished by all true judges of nature. Those of a lively and merry strain have been introduced into the army by the fife, an instrument for which they are remarkably well suited. It has been ridiculously supposed that Rizzio, the Italian secretary of the unfortunate Mary, reformed the Scottish 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 despatches, ever composed an air during the short time he lived in Scotland: but even if there were 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 relative dies in a town, the parish beadle is sent round with a passing-bell: 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 countrymen. The procession is sometimes attended 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. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed nearly in the same manner as in England, but without any regular 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 favorite amusement in this country; but little regard is paid to art or gracefulness: the whole consists in agility, and in keeping time to the tune, which is usually done 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 *Mall*, 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, which they hurl from a common stand toward a mark at a certain distance; and whoever is nearest to the mark is the victor.

The dress of the Highlanders is a kind of national characteristic, a description of which must not be omitted. The plaid is composed of a woollen stuff, sometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This consists of various colors, 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 colors, 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 he throws 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*. 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 poor wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undressed leather; for the head a blue flat cap is used, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the *phelibeg* hung generally their knives, a dirk or dagger, and an iron pistol, sometimes of fine workmanship and curiously inlaid with silver. The introduction of the broad sword of Andréa Ferrara, a Spaniard (which was always part of the Highland dress), seems not to have been earlier than the reign of James III., who invited that excellent workman into 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 close 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. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The plaid was worn by them in a graceful manner, the drapery falling toward the feet in large folds.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dress rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to the government. Many efforts were made by the legislature, after the rebellion in 1715, to disarm them, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dresses. The dis-

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arming scheme was the most successful; for, when the rebellion broke out, in 1745, 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. The parliament, however, after an interval of forty years, consented to its restoration, as it was found better adapted to the freedom of motion, than the close garments of the English. The dress of the higher and middle ranks of the Low-country differs little from the English; but many of the peasants retain the bonnet, for the cheapness and lightness of the wear.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, AND EDIFICES.] Edinburgh claims the first place under this head. It is said to have been built by the Saxon king Edwin, whose territory reached to the frith of Forth; and it did not fall into the hands of the Scots before the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the castle; and a more inconvenient situation for a capital can scarcely be conceived; the High-street, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying east and west, and the lanes running down its sides north and south. In former times, the town was environed by water, except toward the east; so that, when the French landed in Scotland during the regency of Mary of Guise, they gave it the name of l'Isle-Bourg, or the insular town. This situation suggested the idea of building very lofty houses, divided into many stories, each of which contains a suite of rooms, generally large and commodious, for the use of a family. The High-street makes a grand appearance, especially as it rises a full mile in a direct line and gradual ascent from Holyrood-house on the east, and is terminated on the west by the rude majesty of its castle, built upon a lofty rock. The castle not only overlooks the city and a fine 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 35 or 40 miles, which border upon the Highlands. It contains some good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and a large magazine of arms and ammunition.

Holyrood-house is a stately palace; the quadrangle of which, 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. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilasters; and the inside contains magnificent apartments. Its long gallery is adorned with 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.

The hospital, founded by George Heriot, goldsmith to James VI., commonly called Heriot's Work, stands to the south-west of the castle. 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 exceeds any thing of that kind to be seen in England. One Balcanquill, a divine, whom Heriot appointed 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 different from those of the others. It is, however, upon the whole, a noble 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 in 1580, and by him put under the direction of the magistrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. The original buildings which composed it were calculated for the sober literary manners of those days: but it has been rebuilt in an elegant style. It is supplied with excellent professors in the several branches of learning; and its schools for every part of the medical science are superior to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which has been greatly augmented since his time; 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 the city: it is formed into a 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, which is executed in the same manner, has been by good judges deemed 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 advocates. This is equal, in the opinion of the Scots, to the best libraries in England. The collection has been made with exquisite taste and judgement; and it includes the most valuable manuscript remains of the Scottish history, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, beside a series of medals.

The high-church, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into four churches, and a room for the general assembly. 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, hospitals, and bridges, demonstrate the improvement of the Scottish taste in public works. Parallel to the city, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, erected a new town many years ago. The streets and squares are laid out with the utmost regularity, and the houses are elegantly built with stone.

Between the city and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, at the west or upper end of which the castle looks down with awful magnificence. Its 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 of the vale more commodious for carriages.

Edinburgh contains a theatre, 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.

The city is governed by a lord-provost and other magistrates, annually chosen from the common-council. The 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 inconsiderable commotions, and attend the execution of criminals. The number of inhabitants, in 1801, did not exceed 82,560; but the amount is now about 140,000.

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Glasgow of population and manufactures; and better situated at right angles to the city, and whole an airy style of architecture hardly to be churches, of very fine stonemasonry formerly town-house streets. In particular well accommodated, estimated a large and fine spirit.

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bour of Edinburgh, being under the same jurisdiction. It contains nothing remarkable but the remains of a citadel, 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, some of which 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 Oldenburg.

Glasgow, situated near the Clyde, in the shire of Lanark, is, in point of population, the second city in Scotland, the most flourishing in trade and manufactures, and one of the first in Europe for the elegance, regularity and 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, toward the centre of the city, are supported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern churches are in a fine 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 fabric. The university is spacious, and elegantly built. The town-house is a lofty structure, and has fine apartments for the magistrates. 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, even of high rank. Its population may be estimated at 148,000. The port belonging to the city is Greenock, a large and flourishing town, where ship-building is carried on with great spirit.

Aberdeen consists of the old and new towns. The latter is the shire-town, and was evidently built for the purpose of commerce. It has a spacious and secure harbour, which, however, is not easily entered by large vessels. Its trade is very considerable; and many mercantile ships are here built; yet the population is less than might be expected, scarcely exceeding 26,000. It has twenty-one places of worship, among which are only two parochial churches; one is a fine structure in the Gothic style, while the other exhibits the attractions of modern elegance. The old town, though almost joined to the new one by means of a long village, has no dependence on the other; it is moderately large, but has no haven. In each there is a well-endowed college, both being termed the university of Aberdeen, even amidst a separation of government and discipline.

Perth has a considerable trade with the north of Europe, and an improving linen manufacture. It was once the capital of the Scottish realm. 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 20,000 inhabitants. Dundee, in the shire of Forfar, is far more populous than Perth, and has a very flourishing trade.

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 exports are cotton and linen goods, iron, lead, glass, woollen, leather, grain, sope, &c.; the imports are timber, hemp, flax, wine,

brandy; and, from the West-Indies and the American continent, rum, sugar, rice, cotton, and indigo.

The fisheries of Scotland are well conducted, and produce large supplies for the English and foreign markets. The busses, or vessels employed in the great herring-fishery on the western coast, are fitted out from the north-west parts of England, and the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring islands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbelltown, a commodious port of Argyleshire, which has consequently risen from a mere village into a flourishing town.

The chief manufactures of Scotland are those of cotton and linen. At Glasgow, the former branch is carried on to a very great extent; for it appears that, in one year, ending on the 1st of May, 1818, the exports of cotton goods, including all articles of that description in which silk is partly used, nearly amounted to 46 millions of yards, beside cotton-hose, thread, twist, and yarn; and it is supposed that a still greater quantity was manufactured in that town and neighbourhood, within the same period, for home consumption. Paisley is famous for its manufactures of lawn, muslin, and gauze. The inhabitants of Perth and Dundee make various kinds of linen. Sail-cloth and cordage are well prepared in various parts; and, if the Scots do not equal the English in the fabric of fine woollens, they make an useful ordinary sort of cloth, and strong carpets.

The iron works at Carron, near Falkirk, have long been distinguished; and all sorts of iron goods are there made, from the smallest article to the largest cannon, a great quantity of which are exported. The short piece of ordnance called a carronade was first made here, and hence received its name.

[CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS.] The ancient constitution and government of 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 constitutional checks upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his assumption of a despotic authority. But the Scottish constitution was too aristocratic 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 their tenants and the generality of the people.

The parliament of Scotland anciently consisted of all who held any portion of land of the crown, by military service. This assembly fixed the time of its own meetings and adjournments, and appointed committees to superintend the administration during the intervals of parliament; and, indeed, it had a commanding power in all the affairs of government. The king had no negative voice, nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public business of importance, without the advice and approbation of the parliament. His prerogative was so bounded, that he was not even intrusted with the executive part of the government: he was merely the first servant of his people. Some of the kings, however, 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 very great, who had 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 from the classes 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;

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and to all those were added eight great officers of state, the chancellor being president of the whole body. Their business was to prepare all questions and bills that might be brought into parliament; so that in fact, though the king could give no negative, yet, as he was, by the suberviency of the clergy, and the places he had to bestow, generally sure of the lords of the articles, few matters 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 first 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 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 at once that James had forfeited his crown.

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 independence 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 of freeing themselves from 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 barons, were by the king made hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no distinct house; and the commons had the same deliberative and decisive vote with them in all public affairs. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might sit upon a lord's assise in matters of life and death; nor was it necessary for the assessors, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict.

Before the union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four inferior officers of state: the great were, the chancellor, treasurer, secretary, and keeper of the privy-seal; the others were, the lord-registrar, advocate, justice-clerk, and treasurer-depute. Since the incorporation, the three first offices, and the last, have been discontinued. The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, constable, admiral, and marshal. The employments of constable and marshal were hereditary. A nobleman has still a pension as admiral, and the post of marshal is exercised by a knight-marshal.

The chancellorship of Scotland, and the other suppressed offices, differed little from those of England. The lord-registrar 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 rendered very lucrative by the disposal of the deputation, which lasted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament, and it was not prudent or safe for any member to dispute his report of the numbers upon divisions. The lord-advocate's office resembles that of the attorney-general in England; but his powers are more extensive, because, by the Scottish laws, he is the prosecutor of all capital crimes before the justiciary, and likewise concurs in all pursuits before sovereign courts, for breaches of the peace, and also in all civil matters, wherein the king, or his donator, hath interest.

Courts of regality of old were holden 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 Scottish regalities were 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. It is remarkable that even these courts were in former days invested with the power of life and death.

The courts of commissaries in Scotland answer to those of the English diocesan chancellors, the highest of which is kept at Edinburgh; where, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning wills, the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tithes, divorces, and causes of that nature; but in almost all other parts of the country there is only one judge in 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 fental tyrants.

The legal punishments in Scotland are the same as in England. Decapitation was performed by an instrument called the Maiden, which resembled the French *guillotine*; and of which the model was taken from Halifax in England, to Scotland, by the regent Morton, where it was first used for the execution of himself.

From this short view of the Scottish 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, in substance, 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 code, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exist in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, consisting of a representative from each burgh, to consult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are extensive; and before the Union they made laws relative to shipping, manufactures, and commerce. Their conservator is indeed nominated by the crown; but 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. This is a remarkable institution, and sufficiently proves the great attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its present form in the reign of James III., 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 practice of the Scots; and their acts of *sederunt* answer to the English rules of court; the Scottish wadsets and reversions, to the English mortgages and defeasances; their pinding 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 both countries. Some other usages are the same in both. 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 the presence of the king, who was seated on the top of a hillock, called the Moot-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 Scottish writers assert, by their king Achaius, upon his making an offensive and defensive league with Charlemagne; or, as others say, by Constantine, on pretence of a 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 consists of the sovereign and twelve companions, who are called Knights of the Thistle, and have on their ensign this significant motto, *Nemo me impune lacesset*, "None shall provoke me with impunity."

RELIGION.] Ancient Scottish historians, with Bede and other writers, pretend 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; but it does not appear to have been publicly professed before the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom 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 Aurelian and Diocletian, 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.

Thus, without any dependence upon 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. Scotland thus became involved in that darkness which for ages overspread Europe, though its subserviency to 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, to the time of Robert de Brus, 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 the sway 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 of the continent in its opposition to popery; but it is modeled principally after the Calvinistic plan established at Geneva. This establishment, at various periods, proved so tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of excommunication, which was attended by a forfeiture of estate, and sometimes of life, that the kirk sessions, and other bodies, are no longer allowed to exercise their arbitrary and dangerous powers.

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The highest ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is that of the general assembly, consisting of commissioners (some of whom are laymen) from presbyteries, royal burghs, and universities. The king sends his representative (who is always a nobleman) to preside in this assembly; but he has no voice in its deliberations. A clergyman is chosen for its moderator, or speaker. Appeals are brought to it from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland; and no appeal lies from its determination in religious matters.

Provincial synods are next in authority. They are composed of a number of the adjacent presbyteries, over whom they have power. Subordinate to the synods, are presbyteries, of which there are sixty-nine in Scotland, each consisting of a number of parishes. The ministers of these parishes, with one ruling elder chosen half-yearly out of every session, compose a presbytery. A kirk session consists of ministers, elders, and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act nearly as churchwardens do in England. The elders are supposed to act in a kind of co-ordinancy with the ministers, and to be ready to assist them in some of their clerical duties. The ministers preach, administer the sacrament, catechise, pronounce church-censures, ordain deacons and ruling elders, and assist at the imposition of hands upon other ministers.

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 divines are equally distinguished by good sense and moderation. In the Low-lands, there are many who dissent from the presbyterian establishment and doctrines in several particulars, and are called Seceders. They maintain their own preachers; and 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, and many baptists, beside some sects which are denominated from their preachers. Episcopacy, from the Restoration to the Revolution, was the established religion of Scotland; and would probably have continued so, had not the bishops, who were in general very weak men, refused to recognise king William's title. The partisans of the excluded prince retained the episcopal religion: and king William's government was rendered so unpopular in Scotland, that, in the reign of queen Anne, the episcopalians were more numerous in some parts than the presbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under the act of toleration, were as well attended. A Scottish episcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received some checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themselves so well, that, before the year 1745, they again became numerous; after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, still subsist, but thinly; and there are titular bishops among them.

The defection of some great families from the cause of popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries few and inconsiderable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the islands, and are as quiet and inoffensive as protestant subjects.

[LITERATURE.] Scotland is said to have produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apostle and literary instructor of Ireland. The writings of Adannanus, and other authors who lived before and at the time of the Norman invasion, are specimens of early Scottish learning. Charlemagne 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 favorite universities, and other seminaries of learning, in France, Italy, and Germany. After an interval of darkness, we meet with a poet named Thomas of Erceeldon, who flourished about the year 1270; and, in the following century, John Barbour was the enlightened contemporary and rival of Chaucer. In consequence of the destruction of the Scottish monuments of learning and antiquity, the early annals of the country are lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin style of Buchanan's history is equal in classical purity to that of any modern productions, and the letters of the Scottish kings to the neighbouring princes are the finest compositions of the times in which they were written.

The important discovery of the logarithms may be mentioned as the indisputable right of Napier of Merchiston; and, since his time, the mathematical sciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great success. Keil, in his physico-mathematical works, to the clearness of his reasoning, has sometimes added the coloring of a poet. Of all writers on astronomy, Gregory is one of the most perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, 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 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 Dr. Simson, so well known for his illustrations of the ancient geometry.

In the department of history great 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. Dr. Gilbert Stuart was also an able historic writer; and, in Dr. Henry's history of Great-Britain, we meet with an accurate, methodical, and perspicuous detail, under distinct heads, of every thing interesting in the civil history, constitution, learning, arts, commerce, and manners of the people, from the earliest times. The investigations of Dr. Adam Smith on the subject of national wealth and politics, have perhaps never been equaled; and the moral philosophy of Hutcheson is allowed, even by its opponents, to be ingenious and plausibly supported.

In poetry, if the Scots have not risen to the greatest height, many have certainly far surpassed mediocrity. 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 at the various powers of Armstrong, Beattie, and Burns. By researches in metaphysics and morals, and by critical taste, lord Kames was highly distinguished; Adam Ferguson studied history and philosophy with intelligent acuteness; the novels of Smollet place him in the next rank to Richardson and Fielding; and those of Mackenzie are marked with elegance, nature, and pathos. The most ingenious and able Scottish writer, now living, is Sir Walter Scott, if we consider him

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as the author of *Waverley*; and, if we acquiesce in his denial of all claim to the praise of a novelist, his poems at least have established his fame.

In this sketch, the state of the medical science ought not to be omitted. For a century past, the Scottish physicians have been eminent for sagacity and skill, and for all the learning which their profession requires. The names of Cullen, Pringle, Gregory, Hunter, Pitcairn, and Heberden, may be mentioned, on this occasion, with approbation and respect; and others who have lengthened the life of man might easily be added to the number.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Scotland are four—that of St. Andrew, founded by bishop Wardlaw, in 1411, consisting of three colleges, two of which are now united: that of Glasgow, established by bishop Turnbull in 1453; that of Aberdeen, composed of two colleges, one in the old town, founded by bishop Elphinston in 1500, and one in the new town, erected by George Keith, fifth earl-marshal, in 1593; and that of Edinburgh, founded by James VI. in 1580. These are respectable foundations; and some of the professors are men of distinguished ability.

LANGUAGE.] The Erse or Gaëlic, a dialect of the Celtic, 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 can afford no instruction to the learned, and 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. A 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 which Agricola occupied before he engaged the Caledonian king Galgacus. It is the most entire and the 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 into the area, three are very distinct and plain, viz., the *prætoria*, *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, but was barbarously demolished by a neighbouring Goth, for the purpose of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its circumference at the base was eighty-eight feet. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or some of his successors, as a temple to the god Terminus; for it stood near one of the boundaries of the empire.

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 which remain in Ross-

shire, are probably Norwegian structures, built about the fifth century, to favor the descents of that people.

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 were columns, hollow in the inside, and without the stair-case; that of Brechin was the most entire, being covered at the top with a spiral roof of stone, with three or four windows above the cornice; it consisted of sixty regular courses of hewn free-stone, laid circularly, and regularly tapering toward the top.

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 Danish stones. They were erected as commemorations of victories, and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horseback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, not intelligible at this day. Other historical monuments of the Scots have been discovered; but it must be acknowledged that the ordinary interpretations of them are fanciful. Among these the stone near Fortrose, in Moray, far surpasses all 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 above the 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 relievo are carved on it, and some of them are still distinct and visible; but the injury of the weather has obscured those toward the upper part." Though this monument has been generally considered as Danish, it is not improbable that it is Scottish, and was erected in commemoration of the final expulsion of the Danes out of Moray, where they held their last settlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm, a few years before the Norman invasion.

At Sandwich, in Ross-shire, is a 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 under it. The central division on the reverse exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and other 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. 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 that of Kildrumy, which was formerly a place of great strength and magnificence, and often used as an asylum for noble families in times of civil war. Inverurie castle is also a large and lofty pile, situated on the steep bank of a river; two very high towers bound the front, and, even in their decaying state, give the castle an air of grandeur. Long rows of venerable trees, enclosing the adjoining garden, add to the effect of the buildings. Near Huntley are the ruins of a 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

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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.

[HISTORY.] Though the writers of ancient Scottish history are too fond of fable, it is easy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidence, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians appear to have been the first inhabitants. With regard to the Picts, some have supposed that they were the Britons who were forced to the northward by the Belgic Gauls, about eighty years before the descent of Julius Cæsar, and who, settling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, that were driven in the same direction by the Romans; but it seems to be ascertained that they came from Norway. The tract, lying southward of the Forth, appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons, who formed the kingdom of Alcluyd, the capital of which was Dunbarton: 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 the time of Agricola, who invaded their territories in the year 83. The name of the prince with whom he fought 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 honor to the courage of both people; and the sentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independence 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 honor of Agricola to conceal some parts of this war; for, though he makes his countrymen victorious, they certainly returned southward to the province of the Horesti (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, 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 Antoninus Pius and Severus, to build the two famous prætentures or walls, one between the Friths of Clyde and Forth, and the other between Tinemouth and the Solway-Frith, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; whence it appears that the independence of the latter was never subdued.

At the time of the introduction of Christianity into Scotland, about the year 201, the Picts had gained a footing in that realm; 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 Scottish monarchy suffered a short eclipse; but it broke out with greater lustre than ever, under Fergus II., who recovered his crown; and his successors gave some severe overthrows to the Romans and South-Britons.

When the Romans left Britain, the Scots, as appears from Gildas, were a powerful nation; and, in concert with the Picts, they for many years

severely harassed the South-Britons, who, calling the Saxons to their aid, rushed into equal or greater danger, the effect of which we have already seen. While the new war raged in the south, Dongard was king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldest histories, and those which are least favorable to monarchy, that the succession to the crown continued in the family of Fergus, but in general devolved collaterally; till the inconveniences 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 extensive dominions of that great conqueror. The Picts still remained in Scotland as a separate nation, and were sufficiently powerful 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 maintained frequent wars with the Saxons on the southward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations toward the east; who, being masters of the sea, harassed the Scots by occasional invasions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the English: for, while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were overthrown in Scotland by bloody battles, and at last driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Danish princes who then governed England were not more successful against the Scots, who maintained their freedom and independence, 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 Canmore, from two Gaëlic words which signify a *large head*, but most probably from his great capacity, ascended the throne in 1057. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakspeare, who adheres to the facts stated by historians, can be no stranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own history, previous to his accession. He was a wise and magnanimous prince, and in no respect inferior to his contemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward the Outlaw, son to Edmund Ironside. 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 Matilda 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, and, upon his death, David mounted the throne.

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him as a man, a warrior, or a legislator. To him Henry II., one of the most powerful princes in Europe, in a great measure owed his crown; and his possessions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power in Britain nearly on an equality with that of England. The laws which he promulgated do his memory immortal honor. 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 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 a daughter of the earl of Flanders; David; and Margaret, who married Hangowan, or (as some call him) Eric, son to Magnus IV., king of Norway, and bore to him a daughter, 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 Malcolm IV. and William.

This detail has been given, because it is connected with great events. On the death of Alexander III., John Balliol, who was great-grandson to David, earl of Huntingdon, by his eldest daughter Margaret; and Robert de Brus (grandfather to the great king Robert I.), 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 interregnum 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 arbiter: but, having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived some obsolete absurd claims of its dependence upon that of England; and, finding that Balliol 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 exciting his resentment.

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, the Scots were ready to revolt against him on every opportunity. Those who were so zealously attached to the independence of their country, as to be resolved to hazard every thing for it, were indeed few, compared to those in the interest of Edward and Balliol, 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 a formal surrender of the crown from Balliol, 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 with flagitious baseness carried off or destroyed all the monuments of their history, and the evidence of their independence, particularly the famous fatical 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 the ideas of their freedom; and Edward, finding that their spirit could not be subdued, endeavoured to conciliate them, and affected to treat them on a footing of equality with his own subjects, by projecting an union of the kingdoms. The Scottish 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 nobles, among whom was Robert de Brus, grandson 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 Wallace. Encouraged by these dissensions, Edward once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the most numerous and the best-disciplined army that 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, with the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irresistible body; Edward, however, was obliged to divide it, reserving the command of 40,000 men to himself. With these he attacked the Scots under Wallace at Falkirk, while their disputes ran so high, that the brave regent was deserted by Comyn, the most powerful nobleman in Scotland, who was at the head of the best division of his countrymen. Wallace, whose troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with great loss, but made an orderly retreat, during which he found means to have a conference with Brus, and to convince him of his error in joining 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. That monarch 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.

Brus 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 Comyn, for his attachment to Edward; and, after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his four brothers, he assumed the crown, but was defeated by the English (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle of Methuen. After his defeat, he fled 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, except 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 even better appointed than that of his father, to make a total conquest of North-Britain. It is said that it consisted of 100,000 men; but this is an exaggerated computation: however, it is admitted that the army of Brus did not exceed 30,000; but all of them were veterans who had been bred up in a detestation of tyranny.

Edward, who was not deficient in courage, led his powerful army toward Stirling, then besieged by Brus, who had chosen, with the greatest judgement, a camp near Bannockburn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Gloucester, Hereford, and Pembroke, and sir Giles Argenton. Those under Brus were, his own brother sir Edward, who, next to himself, was supposed to be the best knight in Scotland; his nephew,

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Randolph, earl of Moray; and the young lord Walter, high steward of Scotland. Edward's attack was exceedingly furious, and required all the courage and firmness of Brus and his friends to resist it, which they did so effectually, as to obtain one of the most complete victories that are recorded in history. The great loss of the English fell upon the bravest part of their troops, who were led on by Edward against Brus himself. The Scottish writers make the loss of the English amount to 50,000 men; but this is an absurd amplification, though there never was a more striking defeat. The English 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 was pursued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, 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 glorious success; 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 Balliol for debasing the crown, by holding it of England, and declared that they would treat Robert with the same mark of indignation, 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 a great part of that country, and was proclaimed its king; but, by exposing himself too much, he was killed. Robert, in the sequel, made an advantageous peace with England. He died in 1329, 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, who was succeeded by his son David II. He was a virtuous prince; but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipsed by those of his great and powerful 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 Balliol, son to the original competitor. His progress at first was amazingly rapid, and he and Edward defeated the royal party in several bloody battles; but Balliol was at last driven out of his usurped kingdom by the Scottish patriots. David had the misfortune to be taken by the English at the battle of Durham; and, after continuing above eleven years in captivity, paid 100,000 marks for his ransom. He died in 1371, and the crown devolved upon the family of Stuart, whose representative had married 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 of the same name, 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 of procuring the crown for his own family. Robert, in a moment of alarm, attempted to send his son James into France; but he was most ungenerously intercepted by Henry IV. of England, and, after suffering a long captivity, 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 displayed great talents for government, enacted 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 resolved 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; for he was murdered in his bed by some of the chief nobility in 1437, at the age of forty-three years.

A long minority succeeded; but James II. would probably have equaled 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 all the errors of a feeble mind, are visible in the conduct of James III., whose turbulent reign was closed by a rebellion of his subjects. He was slain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His son James IV. was the most accomplished prince of his 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 his court, 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, in 1513, when he was in the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his son, James V., was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the first being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the house of Guise. He instituted the court of session, enacted 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 the friendship of James was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all of whom he received magnificent presents. But he took little share in foreign affairs; he seemed rather to imitate his predecessors in their attempts to humble the nobility: and, when the doctrines of the Reformation began 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 seised all the church-revenues, in imitation of Henry. As he slighted some friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thus gave 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. James then sent ten thousand men to the western borders, who entered England at Solway-Frith; and he followed them at a short 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 favorite. The troops were so much disgusted at 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 fled, supposing themselves to be attacked by the whole army. The English horse closely pursued them, slew a great number, and captured seven lords, two

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hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred soldiers, with twenty-four pieces of artillery. 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 only 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 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, put to death by queen Elizabeth in 1587, in the forty-fifth year of her age.

Mary's son, James VI. of Scotland, succeeded, in consequence of his descent from Henry VII., on the death of Elizabeth to the English crown. 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. The despotic principles and conduct of that prince so irritated both his Scottish and English subjects, that they took up arms. It was in Scotland that the sword was first drawn against him; but, when the royalists were totally defeated in England, the king put himself in the power of the Scottish army. The officers at first treated him with respect, but afterwards delivered him up to the English parliament, on condition of the payment of 400,000 pounds to the Scots, said to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made several spirited but unsuccessful attempts to restore his son, Charles II. That prince was defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worcester, in 1651; after which, to the time of his restoration, the commonwealth 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 an incorporative union. It was long before the majority of the Scottish parliament would listen to the proposal; but, at last, partly from conviction, and partly through the effects of money distributed among the indigent 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 (corruptly so called for *Hebudes*) or Western Islands, the Orkneys, and the Shetland Isles.

The WESTERN ISLANDS are situated on the north-west coast of Scotland. About 200 of them are reckoned; but many of them are uninhabited. Those which are most worthy of notice are, Arran, Bute, Ilay, Jura, Mull, Skye, Lewis and Harris which form one island, North Uist, and South Uist, Iona, Staffa, and St. Kilda.

Arran is about twenty-two miles in length, and (where widest) about twelve in breadth. It consists chiefly of a series of rough and broken mountains, from one of the highest summits of which, named Goatfeli, 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 lakes of fresh water in this island. It is occupied by 7500 persons, and the chief place is the village of Ranza.

Bute is about twelve miles long and four broad; and its chief town is Rothesay, 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. Rothesay is likewise a royal burgh. Bute contains about 5500 inhabitants.

Ilay is twenty-three miles long and nearly eighteen broad, and is not less populous than Arran. The soil is good, and might by industry be rendered extremely productive. A lead-mine was discovered here in 1763.

Jura, about twenty-two miles long and seven broad, is one of the most rugged of the western islands, which are in general mountainous. The mountains called the paps, which are a range of conical eminences, present a singular appearance. One has been found to have an elevation of 850 yards, though it is greatly exceeded in height by the loftiest, named Ben-an-Oir.

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 about 7500 people, resident in two parishes, with only one town, named Tobermory. There are several ruins of ancient castles in this island.

Skye is about forty-five 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 15,500 in number. A remarkable cave has been discovered in the south-eastern angle of this island, exhibiting stalactitic appearances and curious figures, like the grotto of Antiparos.

Long island, to the westward of Skye, consists of two peninsulas, the northern of which is denominated Lewis, and the southern Harris. Their extent is about seventy miles, from north to south; and the breadth is ten or twelve, and in some parts twenty. The isles of North Uist, South Uist, and Barra, continue this chain of islands to the south 85 miles more, including about sixteen miles of water. The number of inhabitants, in the whole chain, may be computed at 23,000. The only town is Stornaway, in the eastern part of Lewis, a considerable and flourishing place, with an excellent harbour. At the village of Classerness, or Calernish, in the south-west part of the same peninsula, is what some call a Gothic court of judicature; but it is supposed by others to be a Druidical temple, as well preserved and perfect, though not of such large dimensions, as that of Stonehenge.

Iona or Hyona, called also Hui or Hy, and of Colum 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 immersed in barbarism. The church of St. Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of

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some Scottish, Irish, and Norwegian kings, with 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.

Staffa, situated 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. Sir Joseph Banks, in relating his voyage through the Hebudes, says, "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, 371 feet long, 53 broad, and 117 high, composed of such pillars, is thus described by sir Joseph 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 the cave, the most magnificent, I suppose, that has ever been described by travelers. 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 color, with a great deal of elegance; and, to render it still more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; so that the extramity 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 vapors, 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-color. Tirey is level and fertile, but Col is rocky, or rather one continued rock, covered with a thin stratum of earth. The latter island is about thirteen miles long and three broad, and contains about 900 inhabitants.

Hirta, or St. Kilda, is the most western island of the Hebudes, 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 Teneriffe 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 thirty-five 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 entirely 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 Hebudes are clothed and live like the Highlanders. They are similar in persons, constitutions, customs, and prejudices; but with this difference, that the more polished manners of the Lowlanders are rapidly gaining ground in the Highlands. Perhaps the descendants of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be discernible only in the Hebudes.

These 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 was attended, when he appeared abroad, with his musician, who was generally a bagpiper, and dressed in the manner of the English minstrels of former times, but more elegantly. Notwithstanding the contempt into which that music has fallen, it is almost incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among these islanders for many ages. They had regular colleges 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 the government. The common people are little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders; but they certainly fare better; for they have oatmeal, plenty of fish and fowl, cheese, butter, milk, and whey; and also mutton, beef, venison, and the flesh of kids and goats. 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 favorite music, is remarkable.

The inhabitants of the Hebudes, particularly of the isle of Skye, formerly pretended, at least many of them, to the power of foreknowing future events by what is 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. 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 which 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 these adepts agree as to the manner and form of the revelations, or that they have any rule for the interpretation of the typical appearances. The truth seems to be, that these islanders, by indulging themselves in lazy habits, acquire visionary ideas, and overheat their imaginations, till they are presented with 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 Hebudes being the most westerly islands where the Celts settled, their language must remain there in its greatest purity. This opinion, though plausible, has failed in experience. Many Celtic words, it is true, as well as customs, are there found; but the great intercourse which the islanders had with

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the Danes, Norwegians, and other northern people, whose language has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their dialect a compound; so that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erse, which was spoken by their neighbours in Lochaber and on 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 too prevalent.

The ORKNEY ISLANDS, anciently the Orcaides, lie to the north of Dungsby-head, being separated from the most northern part of Scotland by a tempestuous strait called the Pentland Frith, twenty miles long and ten broad. They are sixty-seven in number, but only twenty-five 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 island of the group is called the Mainland, also styled *Pomona*, but seemingly without any allusion to the heathen goddess of that name. 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 capital of the Orkneys. This town extends nearly a mile in length, but contains only about three hundred and thirty houses. The cathedral 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 by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stone, embossed and elegantly flowered.

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 is divided at high tides into two isles. In this island is a mountain called Wart-hill, of the height of 1620 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 supposed to be the reflexion of the rays of the sun from some water; but no such water, when sought, 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 isle 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 is only about three miles in length and one in breadth.

The inhabitants of the Orkneys, who are about 28,000 in number, consist of the mixed descendants of Norwegian colonists and Lowland Scots. They now speak the language of the latter, and are more civilised than their Highland neighbours. Kirkwall has some trade, which,

however, is less considerable than it might easily be rendered. The exports consist of beef, pork, butter, tallow, hides, salted fish, linen yarn, coarse linen, and kelp, of which Sanda in particular produces great quantities; and the imports of coal, wood, sugar, spirits, wines, tobacco, snuff, hardware, printed linens and cottons, &c. The general soil of the country, though shallow, is far from being infertile: but the landholders do not sufficiently encourage agriculture; and the inconveniences and rigors attendant upon the remains of the feudal system check that industry which would otherwise animate the natives. Cattle of a small species abound in some of the islands; sea-fowl and fish are still more numerous. The trees are few and stunted; yet, in some of the morasses, stumps of old trees have been found, about the length of thirty feet. Iron is found in various parts; and it is probable that the discovery of other useful minerals would reward the activity of research.

Among the antiquities of the Orkneys may be mentioned the *tumuli* or funeral hillocks in Westra, the upright stones of Stennis, a camp in Rousa, and a number of Picts' houses, formed of large stones without cement, rising from a circular base into the shape of a truncated cone.

The SHETLAND ISLES are situated about twenty leagues to the north-east of the Orkneys. Forty-six are reckoned, beside many holms and skerries. The principal, called the Mainland, is about 57 miles in length, and 10 in breadth; but it 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 330 families. Skalloway, on the western side, which was once a town of some importance, is now 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 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 scanty portions of cultivated ground. They are at present destitute of trees, though there is reason to believe that 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 the 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 six or seven months, either with the neighbouring islands or other countries. A remarkable instance of this is, that a Scottish fisherman was imprisoned in May, 1689, for stating that the prince and princess of Orange had been raised to the throne of England in the preceding November; and he would probably have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ship.

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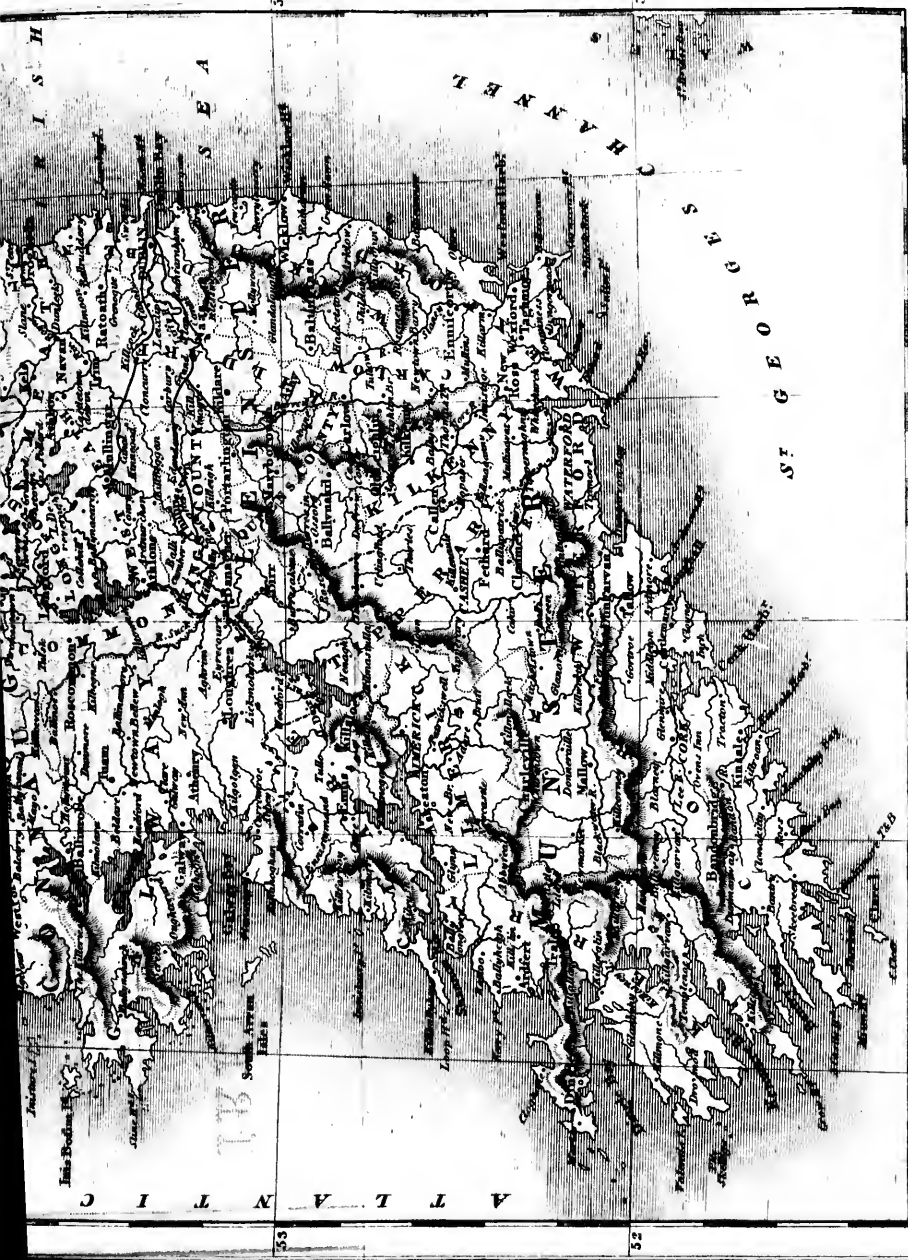
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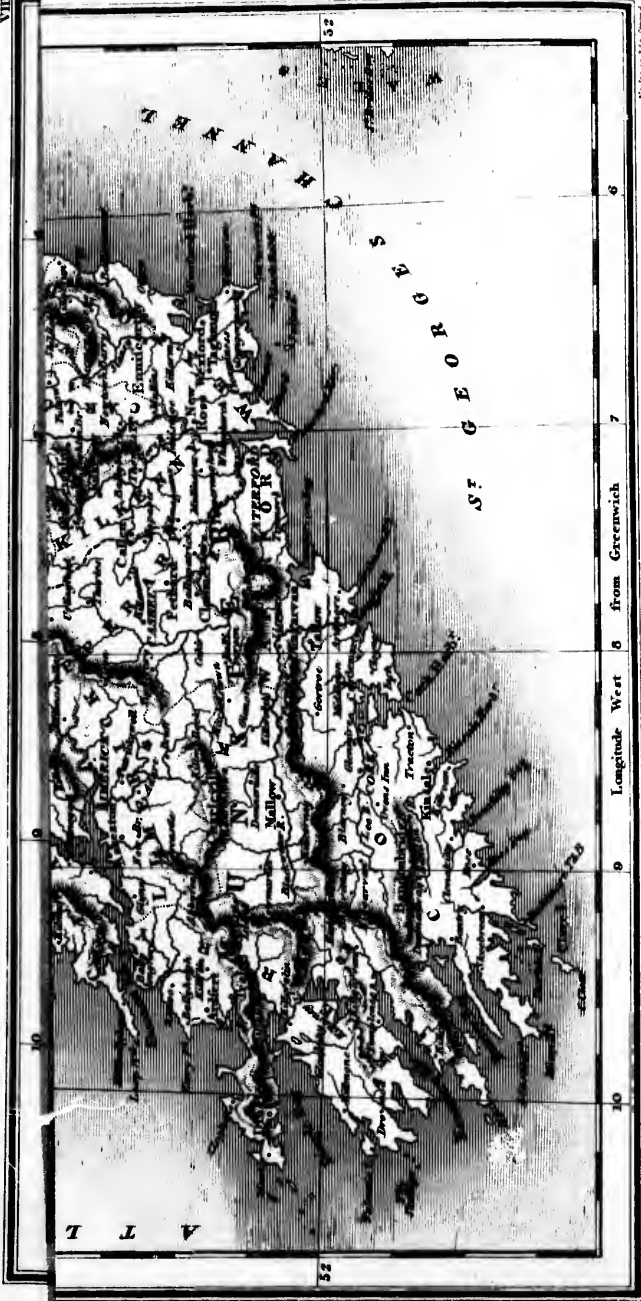
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at 20,186) may be now estimated at 25,000. Their chief food consists of fish, and various kinds of sea-fowl which cover the rocks, and in taking which they display extraordinary address and courage. Agriculture here is in a very low state, oats and 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 consists principally in the export of fish.

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 kirk; and their civil institutions are nearly the same with those of the country to which they belong.

The islands both of Shetland and Orkney were antiently subject to Norway, and were sold, in the thirteenth century, by Magnus of Norway, to Alexander, king of Scotland. They were afterward 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. They are so inconsiderable in a political point of view, that they are only allowed to depute one member to the parliament of the united kingdom.

IRELAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length	between { 51,30 and 55,20 North latitude. 5,20 and 10,15 West longitude.
Breadth 160 }	

Ireland contains 27,450 square miles, with almost 164 inhabitants to each.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] IT appears that Ireland was known to the Greeks by the name of Juverna. The Romans called it Hibernia. In the middle ages it was frequently termed Scotia, which name was transferred to Scotland when the Scots from Ireland settled in that country. Its native denomination is Erin, or the land of the West: from which probably the English name originated.

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. With regard to its boundaries, which are necessarily aquatic, 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 Lancashire and Cumberland; and the North Channel, which separates it from Scotland. The distance from Dublin to Holyhead in North Wales is about 60 miles; but from Donaghadee to the Mull of Galloway in Scotland, it is only 20 miles. The country is

Longitude West 6 From Greenwich 7
 London Published Maps 1787 by J. Montague & the other Proprietors.

divided into four provinces, Leinster, Ulster, Connaught, and Munster; in which are 32 counties. The first and the last are the most populous.

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 that improvement which it seemed to invite, presented only a naked aspect, before the late extraordinary progress of cultivation.

MOUNTAINS.] Although Ireland is far from being a mountainous country, several chains of lofty hills are found in different parts. In the county of Down are ridges, called the mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, one of which (Mount Donard) has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 2800 feet. Mangerton, in Kerry, is about 2500 feet high. Nephin and Croagh Patrick, in Mayo, are 880 yards high. The latter is in the form of an immense cone, and discernible at the distance of 50 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.

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 represents a perfect scenery of hill and dale. Many of them are very extensive; that of Allen, although it has been much diminished by reclaiming a great portion of it, still extends 50 miles in length, and is computed to contain 190,000 acres. There are many others of great extent, and smaller ones are scattered over the whole island. In the county of Cavan, for instance, ninety bogs are reckoned. Where they do not occupy too great a proportion of the land, they are very useful 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 buried beneath their surfaces, and from their converting into a kind of leather the skins of various animals which have had the misfortune of being lost in them. According to the report of a committee of inquiry, in 1814, the extent of peat soil, in Ireland, exceeds 2,830,000 acres, of which above a million and a half may be said to consist of flat red bog, convertible, with due care and attention, to the general purposes of agriculture, while the remainder forms the covering of mountains, of which a very large proportion might easily be improved for pasture, or still more beneficially applied to the objects of plantation.

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 shire of Galway, about 20 miles in length, and from two to five wide; and the great lake Neagh, in the province of Ulster, above 18 miles in length, and nine in breadth, occupying an area of nearly

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60,000 Irish, or above 90,000 English acres. The water of the last-mentioned lake is said to have a petrifying quality. Some of the Irish lakes afford beautiful and romantic prospects, particularly that of Killarney, in the county of Kerry. This lake, which may be divided into three, is surrounded with mountains, rocks, and precipices, the declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with evergreens, 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 300 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 a fine cascade. The echoes among the hills surrounding the southern part of the lake, which is mostly enclosed, are equally delightful and astonishing. The proprietor, the earl of Kenmare, has placed some cannon in the most proper places, for the amusement of the visitants; and the discharge of these pieces is tremendous, almost resembling the rolling of a violent peal of thunder, which seems to traverse 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 encompass the lake, is one stupendous and frightful rock, the front of which toward the water is a 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 almost nine miles broad. The navigation of this river was interrupted by a ridge of rocks spreading across it, south of Killaloe; but this inconvenience has been remedied by a short canal; and communications have also been made with other rivers. The Bann flows 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 southern parts of the country, and, after uniting their streams below Ross, enter the Channel by the haven of Waterford.

BAYS AND HARBOURS.] The bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coast, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country beyond any other in Europe best fitted for foreign commerce. Among the most considerable are those of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvon, Cork, Kinsale, Baltimore, Bantry, Dingle, Shannon-mouth, Galway, Sligo, Donegal, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Foyle.

CANALS.] The improvements of inland navigation have not been neglected 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 Lisburne a navigation is opened between the same lake and the bay of

Carrickfergus. A canal has also been cut from the Liffey through the shire of Kildare and King's-County to Banagher, where it meets the Shannon; it also communicates in a different direction with the Barrow at Athy; so that the inhabitants of the capital have acquired the convenience of internal navigation to Waterford, and also to Limerick and the Atlantic Ocean.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Ireland contains mines of iron, copper, lead, silver, and gold. The last-named metal was discovered, in 1797, in the county of Wicklow; but the hopes of ample produce were not gratified, and the mine was soon left to itself. A mine, in the shire of Antrim, yields a pound of pure silver from thirty pounds of lead. There are also silver mines, though not equally productive, in the shires of Sligo and Tipperary. There is a rich mine of copper at a place called Crone Bawn in the county of Wicklow, and another at Redhills ^{at} of Kildare. Extensive iron-works have been established with a few years, at Arigna, in the shire 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, except that it is more moist. 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 not so hot, and the winters less severe.

The moisture above alluded to, being peculiarly favorable 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 Mr. Young, comparing Ireland with England, attributes the superiority of natural fertility to the former. Agriculture, indeed, has not been properly encouraged, and the farmers are oppressed by the *middle men*, who rent farms of the landlords, and let them out to the occupiers: yet (says the same writer) "in proportion to the extent of the two countries, Ireland is more cultivated than England, having much less waste land." He adds, "The circumstance that strikes me as the greatest singularity of Ireland, is the rockiness of the soil, which should seem at first sight against 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 lauds could not be cultivated. But the

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rocks here are clothed with verdure; those of limestone, with only a thin covering of mould, have the softest and most beautiful turf imaginable."

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 culture of it receives due attention. 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 greyhounds, near four feet in height, are 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 may be attributed to the soil or the climate, it is certain that in Ireland there are neither moles nor toads, nor any kind of serpents. The magpie and the nightingale are strangers to that country; and it is said that the latter bird, if brought over in a cage, soon pines and dies. Some other birds likewise, and several kinds of fish, which abound in England, 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. Pococke, bishop of Ossory. 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 five inches thick over 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 row 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 plaster. 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 Cork there is a vast subterranean labyrinth, called the Oven, the extent of which has never been fully explored, though several bold investigators have advanced into it to the distance of a quarter of a mile or more. But the most remarkable cavern in Ireland is the cave of Dunmore, near 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 stalactitic concretions, in the forms of inverted cones and pyramids, which, when strongly illuminated, shine with astonishing brilliance, 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.] In 1672, there were, according to sir William Petty, no more than 1,100,000 persons in the whole extent of Ireland. In the reign of queen Anne, there were at least two millions; and we may now calculate the number at four millions and a half.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] It is justly observed by Dr. Leland, with regard to the manners of the ancient Irish, that, if we make our inquiries on this subject from 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 others, in their enthusiastic ardor, 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 nations. 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 descendants 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 patient of hardship. Though in these respects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neighbours, yet their state of barbarism may more easily be accounted for, from acci-

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dental than from natural causes. The far 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 labored 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 by intrepidity, spirit, 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 favorite musical instrument is the harp; but, like their Caledonian brethren, they also make use of the bagpipe. 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. The custom of placing a corpse before their doors, laid out upon a table, having a plate upon the body to excite the charity of passengers, is practised even in the environs of Dublin. The convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing, and more often quarreling among themselves, are offensive to every stranger.

The common Irish, in their manner of living, seem to resemble the ancient Britons, as described by Roman authors, or the savages of North-America. Mean huts, or cabins built of clay and straw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the same materials, serve the grand 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 abundantly the fields may be stocked with cattle, that animal food of which the higher and middle classes are so fond, is a rarity to the Hibernian poor. Yet their children, amidst scanty and wretched fare, are plump, robust, and hearty; and even the laborers, for whom better nourishment would seem to be necessary, are by no means deficient in personal strength.

The descendants of the English and Scots, since the conquest of Ireland by Henry II., though not the most numerous, form the most respectable and opulent part of the nation. Of this description are most of the nobility and gentry, and also the principal traders, who inhabit the eastern, northern, and southern coasts, where most of the trade of Ireland is carried on. It is remarkable that a great part of the north of Ireland, though the poorest soil, is, next to Dublin and its neighbourhood, 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 brought to perfection.

From this short review, it appears, that the present inhabitants are composed of three distinct classes; the old Irish, poor, ignorant, and depressed, who inhabit, or rather exist upon, the interior and western parts; the descendants of those English who gave a new appearance to the whole coast opposite to Britain, 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 a very long period may be expected to elapse before the inhabitants of Ireland will be so thoroughly consolidated and blended as to become one people. The gentry, and the middle class, 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. Indeed, their affection of friendship cannot be very sincere, when the very man who pretends to feel a high regard for his guest or visitant, will suddenly fancy that his honor is wounded by a remark uttered in the laxity of inadvertence, and will call his friend into the field, reducing him to the alternative of losing his life for no real offence, of driving his irritable antagonist from the world, or of being stigmatised in every company as a despicable coward.

[CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, AND EDIFICES.] Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is, in magnitude 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 170,000 inhabitants. It stands about seven miles from the sea, 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 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 the Wicklow mountains; but the city itself, from its low situation, makes no striking appearance. Many parts of it, however, are very fine; and, while the old streets are narrow and mean, the new streets are as elegant as those of Westminster. 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 considerable vessels as far as the custom-house, or centre of the city, is small, when compared with the Thames at London. It is crossed by six bridges, three of which are elegant, especially Sarah's-bridge, consisting 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 (now a national bank), the university, the courts of justice, the custom-house, and the royal exchange, an elegant structure of 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. 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

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built with stone as high as the first floor, give the whole an air of magnificence, not perhaps exceeded by any place in England, except Bath.

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. On 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 died insane; and other hospitals for patients of every description.

Dublin appears to have felt the consequences of the union. The removal of its parliament has not only diminished its dignity, but has increased the number of emigrating nobility and gentry, and protracted the period of their absence. Yet, as it boasts of a splendid court, still possesses the great tribunals, and exhibits other marks of honor and respectability, while the flow of its commerce is quickened by an infusion of British capital, the inhabitants ought not to complain loudly of the particular inconveniences of a measure which has been salutary in its general effects.

Cork is the second city in Ireland, for magnitude and population. It lies 120 miles south-west of Dublin, and contains about 85,000 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. Its trade is very considerable; and there is, perhaps, a greater quantity of 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 the West-Indies, which put in here to victual and complete their lading. Some spacious and well-built streets have been added to the town; and the public buildings, if they are not all handsome or elegant, are large and commodious.

Limerick occupies the third rank among the commercial towns of Ireland. It exports provisions to a great amount, and carries on the linen, woollen, and paper manufactures with success. Its flourishing state is proved by the increase of its population, which now amounts to 55,000.—Waterford, which declined after the rebellion in 1798, has since retrieved its affairs, and enjoys a considerable share of foreign trade. Its inhabitants are about 40,000 in number.—Belfast, situated on a river which flows into the bay of Carrickfergus, is a large well-built town. Among its manufactures are those of linen, cotton, glass, and earthen ware; and, while it enjoys the benefit of commercial reputation, it derives additional respectability from its literary institutions.—Londonderry, on the verge of Lough-Foyle, is a strong little city, having linen-manufactures, with mercantile shipping; and Donegal is a place of some trade, as likewise Enniskillen.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The exports of Ireland are linen, lawn and cambric, horses and black cattle, hides, tanned leather, calf-skins dried, horns of oxen and cows, ox-hair, horse-hair, lead,

copper ore, dried fish, otter-skins, goat-skins, and some other commodities. The Irish have carried their inland manufactures, even those of luxury, to a considerable height; and their viceroys and their courts have lately encouraged them by their examples, and, while they are in that government, make use of no other.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS.] Before the union, 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: but, by the articles of union, which took place in 1801, the two islands have become one realm, 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 (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), form the number of representatives of Ireland in the united legislature.

The laws of Ireland differ very little from those of England; for, after the conquest of Ireland, the laws of England were received 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.

For the regular distribution of justice, there are in Ireland four terms in every year 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 viceroy.

REVENUE AND DEBT.] The revenue is now in a great measure combined with that of Great-Britain; but it was settled at the time of the union, that, while Britain should contribute fifteen parts toward the general expenditure of the united kingdom, Ireland should only pay two parts. The deficiency of the Irish revenue before the union led to an accumulation of debt: but the amount is small, compared with the general debt of the empire; and it is now subjected to the operation of the English sinking-fund.

KNIGHTHOOD.] The order of St. Patrick consists of the sovereign and thirteen knights-companions. Their riband is of light blue, and their badge is three crowns united on a cross, with the motto round, *Quis separabit?* 1783, fastened by an Irish harp to the crown imperial.

RELIGION.] The established religion 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 considerable progress in the towns and communities.

Ireland, in proportion to its extent, contains as many protestant sectaries as England, particularly presbyterians, baptists, quakers, and methodists. 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 exceedingly suc-

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cessful, as have been many institutions of the same kind, in introducing industry and knowledge among the Irish.

The archbishoprics are four; Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam; and the bishoprics 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. It is said, that, when St. Patrick landed in Ireland, he found many holy and learned Christian preachers, 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*. Its 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 founders of many monasterics." We have also the testimony of 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 honorable testimony," says lord Lyttelton, "not only to the learning, but likewise to the hospitality and bounty of that nation."

In modern times, the Irish have also distinguished themselves in the republic of letters. Archbishop Usher does honor to literature itself. Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has perhaps never been excelled in the walks of wit, humor, 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, we may also mention sir Richard Steele, bishop Berkeley, Parnell, Sterne, and Goldsmith. To these we may add Burke, an admirable orator and a masterly writer, and Sheridan, whose eloquence was exceeded only by his ability in dramatic composition.

COLLEGIATE FOUNDATIONS, } Ireland contains only one univer-
AND LITERARY SOCIETIES. } sity, which is denominated Trinity
College. It consists of two quadrangles, in the whole of which are thirty-three buildings of eight rooms each. It 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 inferior students. The whole number of students, including those who pay for their education, may be calculated at five hundred. There are thirteen professors of various sciences. Trinity-college has a power of conferring the degrees of bachelor, master, and doctor, in all the arts or faculties.

With a liberal spirit of toleration, and from a wish to prevent the emigration of the catholics to the continent for the purpose of receiving instruction, the royal college of St. Patrick was erected at Maynooth, in 1795, by order of the Irish parliament; and it continues to flourish under the patronage of the imperial legislature, being supported by annual grants.

An Irish Academy was incorporated in 1786, not only (like the Royal Society of London for the advancement of philosophy and science, but also for the study of antiquities and the promotion of elegant literature. Many of its published papers are interesting and valuable.

LANGUAGE.] The Irish language is a dialect of the ancient Celtic. Its usage 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 persons of a higher class, who do not understand Irish. It is not improbable that, in the course of another century, the latter will be accounted among the dead languages.

The Lord's prayer in Irish is as follows :

Ar nothairne ata ar neamh, naomhthar hairm ; tigeadh do riogachd ; deuntar do thoil, ar an italamh mar ata ar neamh ; tabhair dhuirn a niu ar naran lethamhail ; agus maithdhuirn ar bhfiaca amail mar maithmidrne mar bhfeitheamhnuibb fein ; agus na leig sinn a cathughadh, achd saor sinn o olc : oir is leat fein an rioghachd, agus an cumhachd, agus an ghloir guffioruige. 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 upward, with a conical roof. Fifty 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 agree 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 belfries to the monasteries ; which, it is said, is agreeable to the import of their Irish name, *cloghad*. From their resemblance to the Picts' houses in the Orkney and Shetland islands, the former opinion is the more probable.

In Ireland likewise are found cairns, *carnedhs*, 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 ; *cromlyeeaghs*, or large flat stones raised from the ground, horizontal or inclined, intended probably for the purposes of superstition ; and we may add, that the ruins of stately castles, erected in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries 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 æra, 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, although it might have been peopled still earlier from Gaul or Britain, Heber, Heremon, and Ith, the sons of Milesius, gave a race of kings to the Irish, distinguished by the name of Gadelians, and Skuits, 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, about the middle of the fifth century, the celebrated St. Patrick was employed in the propagation of Christianity in Ireland, though that country had been long before visited by Christian missionaries, by whose means it had made a considerable progress among the rude inhabitants. After this period, Ireland was occasionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England ; and, 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 stone edifices in that kingdom. The natives defended themselves bravely against the Easterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford, and Cork, but resided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood,

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which, by the old Irish, was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The people, 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 a great part of Ireland. It is certain that Dublin was about that time a flourishing city, and that the Irish gave the Easterlings several defeats, though the latter were 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 was offered in the year 1168. Dermot Mac-Morrogh, king of Leinster, an oppressive tyrant, quarreled 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, who promised to restore him, if he would take an oath of fidelity to the crown of England, for himself and all the petty princes depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Mac-Dermot's cause to the English barons, particularly to Richard Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz-Stephen, and Maurice Fitzgerald. Those noblemen undertook the enterprise upon the same motives and principles which actuated the Norman and Breton lords in the expedition to England under William I.; and Strongbow was to marry Dermot's daughter. In 1169, the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year, Strongbow arriving with a considerable reinforcement, his marriage with the fair Eva was celebrated.

The descendants of the Danes continued to possess Dublin, which, after some ineffectual opposition made by Roderic, was taken and plundered by the English. On the death of Dermot, Henry became jealous of Strongbow, seized his estates in England and Wales, and recalled his subjects from Ireland. The Irish about the same time, to the amount of 50,000, besieged Dublin under their principal king; but, though all Strongbow's Irish friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to extremity, he forced the enemy to raise the siege, after a great diminution of their number; and, returning to England, he appeased Henry by swearing fealty to him and his heirs, and resigning into his hands all the towns and forts which he held in Ireland.

In 1171, Henry, attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran soldiers, and the flower of his nobility, landed near Waterford; and not only all the petty princes of Ireland, except the king of Ulster, but even the chief potentate, submitted to the English monarch, who pretended that O'Connor's submission included that of Ulster, and that consequently he was the sovereign of Ireland. He kept a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he distributed the manors of Ireland among the English nobility, and settled a civil administration. Thus the conquest of Ireland was effected by the English almost with as much ease as that of Mexico by the Spaniards, and for much the same reasons,—the rude and unarmed state of the natives, and the dissensions that prevailed among their princes or leaders.

Henry gave the title of lord of Ireland to his son John, who, in 1185, went over to that country; but the prince and his giddy Norman courtiers

made a very ill use of their power, and rendered themselves odious to the Irish, who were otherwise very well disposed toward the English. Richard I. was too much occupied with the crusade to pay any great regard to the affairs of Ireland; but king John, after his accession, made amends for his former behaviour toward the Irish. He prosecuted his father's plan of introducing into Ireland the English laws and officers, and he erected those parts of the provinces of Leinster and Munster, which were within the English pale, into twelve counties. We find, however, that the descendants of the ancient princes, in other parts, gratified him with no more than a nominal subjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exercised all acts of sovereignty within their own states.

The unsettled reign of Henry III., his wars and captivity, detracted from the high opinion which the Irish had formed of the English government; but they seem to have continued quiet under his son Edward I. Gavaston, the favorite of Edward II., acquired great credit while he acted as lieutenant of Ireland; but the successes of the Scottish king, Robert de Brus, 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 king Robert's brother Edward. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the English governors and armies: and he was actually crowned king at Dundalk; but he seems to have been violent in the exercise of his sovereignty, and he was at last defeated and slain. After this, Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and enacted judicious laws for the benefit of that country.

During the minority of Edward III. commotions were 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, Edward's son Lionel (ancestor of the house of York), 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. He rendered himself highly popular by his administration; but he did not accomplish his grand object.

In 1394, Richard II., finding that the execution of his despotic schemes in England must be abortive without farther support, passed over to Ireland, with an army of 34,000 men, well armed and appointed. As he made no use of force, the Irish looked upon his presence to be a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. The king, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and bestowed the honor 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-lieutenant, the earl of March, who had been killed by the wild Irish. His army again struck the natives with consternation, and they threw themselves upon his mercy.

The Irish, after Richard's death, still retained a warm affection for the house of York, and, when that family asserted its claim to the crown, embraced its cause. Edward IV. made the earl of Desmond lord lieutenant of Ireland for his services against the Ormond party and other adherents of the house of Lancaster, and he was the first Irish chieftain who obtained this honor. Even the accession of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile the Irish to his title as duke of Lan-

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caster: they therefore readily joined Lambert Simnel, the impostor; but they were defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them unwilling at first to join Perkin Warbeck, notwithstanding his plausible pretence of being the young duke of York. He was, however, at last recognised as king by the Irish; and, in our history of England, the reader may learn the event of his pretensions. Henry behaved with moderation toward his favorers, and was content with requiring the Irish nobles 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; and, when the emperor Charles V. endeavoured to gain them to his interest, the king appointed his natural son, the duke of Richmond, lord-lieutenant. This did not prevent the Irish from breaking out into a rebellion in 1540, under Fitz-Gerald, who had been lord-deputy, and was won over by the emperor, but was at last put to death by the king's order.

About the year 1542, James V., king of Scotland, formed some pretensions to the crown of Ireland, and was favored by a strong party among the Irish themselves. It is difficult to say, had he lived, what the consequence of his claim might have been. Henry, understanding that the Irish had a mean opinion of his dignity, as his predecessors had hitherto assumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland, declared himself king of that country; and his new dignity made a great impression upon the natives, who thought that allegiance was not due to a mere lord. It produced a more ready submission of the people; 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.

In the reign of Edward VI., the pope and the emperor kept up an interest in Ireland, and the latter even sent troops into that country to oppose the government; but the views of those bigots were frustrated by the spirit of the lord-deputy, and that religious reformation which the young king patronised took place in the English part of Ireland with little or no opposition. The Irish seem to have been very quiet under the government of Mary; but they proved thorns in the side of Elizabeth. The perpetual disputes she had with the Roman-catholics, both at home and abroad, gave her great uneasiness; and the pope, and the emperor's son Philip of Spain, always found new resources against her in Ireland. The Spaniards gained possession of Kinsale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and outwitted her favorite 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. The lenity shown to such an offender, is a proof of the queen's dread of 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, the chiefs fled to the continent. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608 they instigated a young chieftain, named O'Dogherty, to a fresh rebellion, by promising him speedy supplies of men and money from Spain. He was killed in the contest, and his chief adherents were put to death. The attainders of the Irish

rebels, which passed in the reigns of Elizabeth and James, vested in the crown 511,465 acres, in the counties of Donegal, Tyrone, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh; and enabled the king to make that protestant plantation in the north of Ireland, by which the most rebellious province of the kingdom was converted to habits of order and of tranquil industry.

Those prodigious attainders, however just and necessary they might be, operated fatally for the English in the reign of Charles I. The Irish 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 conspiracy for massacring all the English protestants in that kingdom. In this they were encouraged by the unhappy dissensions that broke out between the king and the parliaments of England and Scotland. The discovery of their execrable scheme, by the ruling power at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into their hands. They, however, partly executed, in 1641, their horrid scheme of massacre; but authors differ as to the number of persons who were murdered; the amount has been exaggerated by warm protestant writers, some of whom have extended the calculation to 150,000: authors less inflamed with zeal have estimated the amount of the sufferers at 40,000; other accounts speak of 10,000 or 12,000; and some have diminished that number. From that time to the death of Charles, Ireland was in a state of disorder and commotion. When Cromwell was sent by the parliament to subdue the royal party in that kingdom, he met with speedy and complete success, and, in the course of the campaign, he retaliated upon the catholics (but in a most unjustifiable and atrocious manner at Drogheda) the cruelties which they had inflicted upon the protestants. So severely did they suffer, 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, he might remount his throne; but he was deceived, and his own pusillanimity co-operated to his disappointment. He was driven out of Ireland by his son-in-law, after the battle of the Boyne, the only evident 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; and, being irritated by opposition, and free from every restraint, he would have trampled upon all rights, civil and religious, and pursued the most arbitrary designs. The army of William consisted of 36,000 men; that of James of only 33,000, but advantageously posted. James, it is true, fought at the head of an undisciplined rabble: and 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, if the acts of parliament which gave them away had been strictly enforced, Ireland would have been almost entirely peopled with British inhabitants. But 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 catholic and the protestant interests. It was therefore thought prudent to relax the reins of government, and not to

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put the forfeitures too rigorously into execution. Experience has confirmed the wisdom of this scheme of policy. The lenity of the measures pursued with regard to the catholics, and the great pains taken for the instruction of their children, with the progress which knowledge and the arts have made in Ireland, have greatly diminished the popish interest; and the spirit of industry has enabled the Irish to know their own strength and importance.

But, though some laws and regulations had occasionally taken place favorable to Ireland, it must be acknowledged that the people labored under considerable grievances, in consequence of some unjust 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 favor the woollen manufacture 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 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 to the trade of England prevented justice from being done to Ireland. But several incidents, which happened afterwards, at length operated strongly in favor 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 for the defence of Ireland against invasion. By degrees these 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 resist foreign enemies. The Irish now began to assume a higher tone than that to which they had before been accustomed; and their remonstrances met with unusual attention, both from their own parliament and from that of Great-Britain. The latter, in 1779, voted an address, recommending to the king's most serious consideration the distressed and impoverished state of the loyal and well-deserving people of Ireland, and desiring him to give orders for a communication of such particulars relative to the trade and manufactures of Great-Britain and Ireland, as might enable the national wisdom to pursue effectual measures for promoting the wealth, commerce, and interest, of his majesty's subjects in both kingdoms. To this address the king returned a favorable answer; and, in the same year, both houses of the Irish parliament also voted addresses, in which they declared, that nothing but the grant of a free trade could save the kingdom from ruin. Being disposed to doubt the patriotism of the members, the people of Dublin, assembling before the parliament-house, endeavoured, by clamors and menaces, to compel all who entered 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 money-bills for six months only were sent over to England, where they passed the great seal, and were immediately returned, without any dissatisfaction at the limited grant.

In the mean time the members of the opposition in the British parliament strongly represented the necessity of an immediate attention 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 stated, that the volunteer associations in that kingdom amounted to forty thousand men, unpaid, self-appointed, and independent, well armed and accoutred, daily improving in discipline, and increasing in number. The 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 critical situation of Great-Britain, 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.

The freedom of trade, thus conceded, gave great joy to the Irish, who were encouraged to aim also at important constitutional reformations; and, in various counties and cities, the right of the British parliament to make laws, which should bind Ireland, was denied in public resolutions. By degrees the spirit which had been manifested by the leaders of the Irish parliament seemed 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. The reviving zeal of the leading members at length proved completely successful; and, in 1782, the two houses were fully emancipated from the jurisdiction of the British parliament.

In the following year, the government, nobility, and people of Ireland, vied with each other in 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, and a sum of money granted for erecting the necessary buildings. These preparations for their accommodation were, however, rendered ultimately useless by some misunderstanding which arose between the parties.

In 1788, the lords and commons of Ireland addressed the prince of Wales, requesting him to assume the government 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 constitution of the realm, all the royal authorities, jurisdictions, and prerogatives. The lord-lieutenant having declined presenting the address, as contrary to his oath and the laws, the two houses appointed delegates, who delivered it to his royal highness. His majesty having, to the great joy of his subjects, recovered from his severe indisposition, the prince returned an answer fraught with the warmest sentiments of regard for the kingdom, and of gratitude to the parliament for that offer which was thus happily rendered nugatory.

The parliament of Ireland afterwards extended liberal indulgences to the Roman-catholics of that kingdom, by establishing the legality of intermarriage 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 manufac-

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tures; and, in 1793, a bill passed the legislature, by which the catholics, being freeholders, were permitted to become parliamentary electors. They were not fully satisfied with these concessions, but wished for a repeal of all remaining disqualifications; and when, in the beginning of the year 1795, earl Fitzwilliam was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, they considered the disputed points as conceded by the ministry. But, when a bill had been introduced for their gratification, the great power and influence of the Beresfords, a family distinguished by inordinate ambition and rapacity, occasioned the recall of the popular viceroys, who was superseded by earl Camden. The whole system of administration was now changed; all ideas of concession on the part of the 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 views, and increase the number of their adherents.

About the beginning of the year 1791, a society was instituted under the appellation of United Irishmen, the ostensible principles of which were parliamentary reform, and what they chose to term catholic emancipation, or a restoration of the catholics to all the privileges of Irish subjects. This society is said to have owed its origin to Theobald Wolfe Tone; and its constitution evinced much ability and political knowledge. The principal article of the confederation 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 persuasion; and thereby to obtain a complete reform in the legislature, founded on the principles of civil, political, and religious liberty." For several years, from the secrecy and circumspection with which its affairs were conducted, it attracted little of the attention of government. But the violence of party disputes which followed the recall of earl Fitzwilliam considerably increased the number of its adherents, and added to them several persons of abilities and influence; particularly Arthur O'Connor, Dr. Muc-Nevin, counsellor Emmet, and Oliver Bond, an opulent citizen of Dublin. From the confession of these very persons, it appears 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 1795, through the medium of Mr. Tone, a regular communication was opened between the French directory and the United Irishmen; and, in 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 following winter, when the French fleet took the opportunity, afforded by a thick fog, to elude the vigilance of admiral Colpoys, by whom it 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, anchored in Bantry bay. The violence of the weather preventing any attempt to effect a landing, they quitted the coast in despair. A considerable degree of alarm was excited in Ireland by the appearance of this armament; but the people in general evinced the most determined loyalty, and manifested the greatest readiness to meet and resist the enemy, if a descent should be attempted.

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 esta-

blished a regular communication and correspondence with that country. New arrangements were made for an invasion; and Dr. MacNevin, 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-force to co-operate in this design. But the plan was rendered abortive by the memorable victory of lord Duncan over the Dutch fleet.

The most active and vigorous measures were now adopted by the government. A very considerable addition was made to the military force of the kingdom; a bill was enacted 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 rigor, and even of cruelty, appear to have been committed by the agents of the government; but it should be at the same time remembered, that numerous acts of atrocious barbarity were likewise committed by the rebels.

These rigorous measures were likewise, in some degree, justified by a complete discovery of the traitorous designs and proceedings of the society. A person of the name of Reynolds, hoping to profit by a disclosure of the conspiracy, communicated such information as led, in March 1798, to the apprehension of many of the most active malcontents. New directors were immediately chosen, and anxious consultations were holden by the alarmed conspirators. Finding that their renewed schemes were imparted to the viceroy by another informer, they resolved to hazard an insurrection, while they yet possessed the means of action. To check their views upon the metropolis, 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 arbitrary directions, rose in various parts of the country; and about 15,000 appeared, ill-armed indeed and wretchedly accoutred, in the neighbourhood of Wexford. They made themselves masters of that town, where they liberated from prison Mr. Beauchamp Bagenal Hervey, who was afterwards nominated to the chief command of their army. Under him they attacked the town of New-Ross, but were repulsed with great slaughter: they were likewise repelled in assaults upon 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 which he 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 fought with an appearance of spirit, but at length fled with precipitation, leaving a great number of killed and wounded. 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

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being laid in ashes. The insurgents, before they retired, offered to treat; but general Lake refused to sign any terms with armed rebels, though to the deluded multitude he promised pardon, on condition of instant submission. Hervey had quitted the army 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 hanged 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 total defeat at Ballinahinch. They fought with great obstinacy; and their leader Monro was made prisoner, to whom no mercy was shown.

The British ministry, in the mean time, though not dissatisfied with the conduct of lord Camden, resolved to give Ireland a military lieutenant; and when the marquis Cornwallis had assumed the reins of government, his conduct was temperate and judicious. He sent a message to the house of commons, 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 vigor against the obstinate."

A special commission was now opened in Dublin for the trial of the principal delinquents, several of whom were punished with death. Among them Bond was tried, convicted, and condemned: but the court consented to pardon him, and to desist from any farther 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 permitted to transport themselves to any country not at war with his majesty. Bond survived his pardon only a few days: and O'Connor, Mac-Nevin, and the rest, after having been a considerable time confined in Ireland, were removed to prisons in Scotland; whence, after the conclusion of peace in 1802, they were permitted to transport themselves to France.

After the failure of the expedition under 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. Some frigates and transports from France appeared in Killala bay, and landed about a thousand men, with a quantity of arms and ammunition. Few insurgents joined the invaders; 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 Lake was collecting his forces; attacked, and compelled him to retreat; after which he advanced toward Tuam; but, on the 7th of September, the marquis Cornwallis came up with the French in the vicinity of Castlebar, when they retired; and the next morning, after a slight resistance, they surrendered at discretion. The rebels who had joined them were dispersed, and a great number of them killed or taken.

Every estimate of the number of those who lost their lives in this deplorable contest must 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. It is sufficient to observe, that even the

former account appears to be an exaggeration. 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 preventive 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 two parliaments on the same day (January 22, 1799); and, in the British legislature, the address, which was considered as an approbation of the measure, passed without a division. A similar address was carried in the Irish house of lords by a majority of 33, but rejected in the other house by a majority of two, which the next day increased to six against the measure: it was therefore laid aside for that time. Government, however, by no means totally abandoned it; for, in the beginning of the next session, the proposition was again submitted to the parliament of Ireland. The address in the house of lords passed without a debate; and, after an animated discussion in the lower house, which lasted till the noon of the following day, it was approved by a majority of forty-two. The act of union afterward passed through the two parliaments; and the incorporation took place at the commencement of the year 1801.

At the first view, it seems difficult to discover how a legislative union could remove the cause of the civil commotions which distracted that unfortunate kingdom; how it could lessen religious prejudices, or prevent, what it seemed rather calculated to increase, the expenditure of Irish property at a distance from the country whence it was derived. Yet it must not be denied that unity in government has many advantages, and is indeed essentially necessary; and that a 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.

For some years after the union, a spirit of disaffection continued to manifest itself among the lower orders in many parts of Ireland. The agents of the leaders in the last rebellion, renewed their attempts to excite an insurrection similar to the former; but, fearing that their designs were discovered, in consequence of the explosion of a quantity of gunpowder in a house which they had hired for a *dépôt*, 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 of surprising the castle. Meeting 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 out of his carriage, and barbarously murdered them with their pikes. The delay which the perpetration of this atrocious act occasioned, afforded time for some troops to assemble, and the insurgents were attacked and dispersed. Many were apprehended and tried, and several suffered death, for this feeble and rash attempt at rebellion. Among those who were not spared was Emmet (son of the counsellor), the director and leader of the misguided rabble.

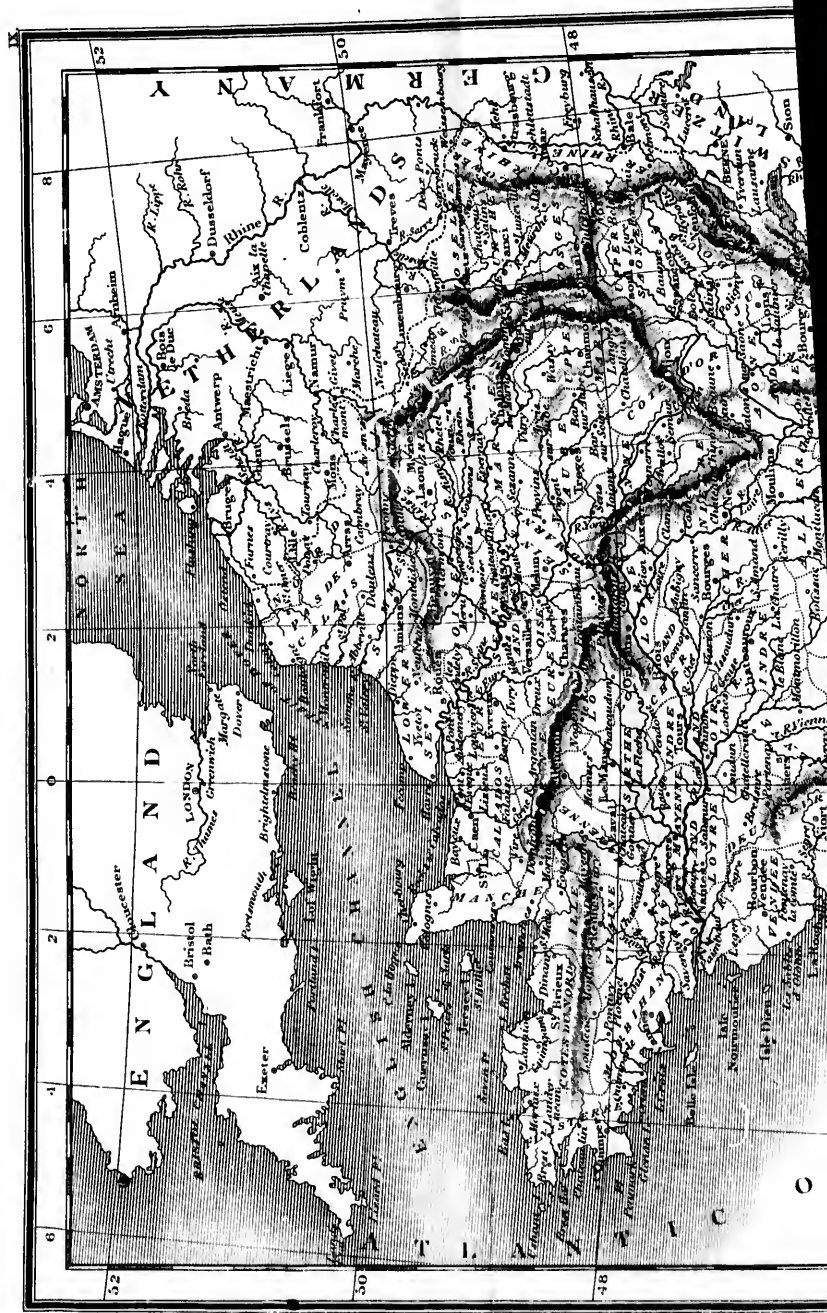
Since that time, no open insurrections have occurred in Ireland; but commotions have occasionally arisen in different parts from the remaining discontent of the inferior people, the pressure of indigence, and the struggles of religious faction. Many acts of violence have been perpetrated, and sometimes whole families have been murdered with the most brutal barbarity. Some are of opinion that these disorders cannot be fully

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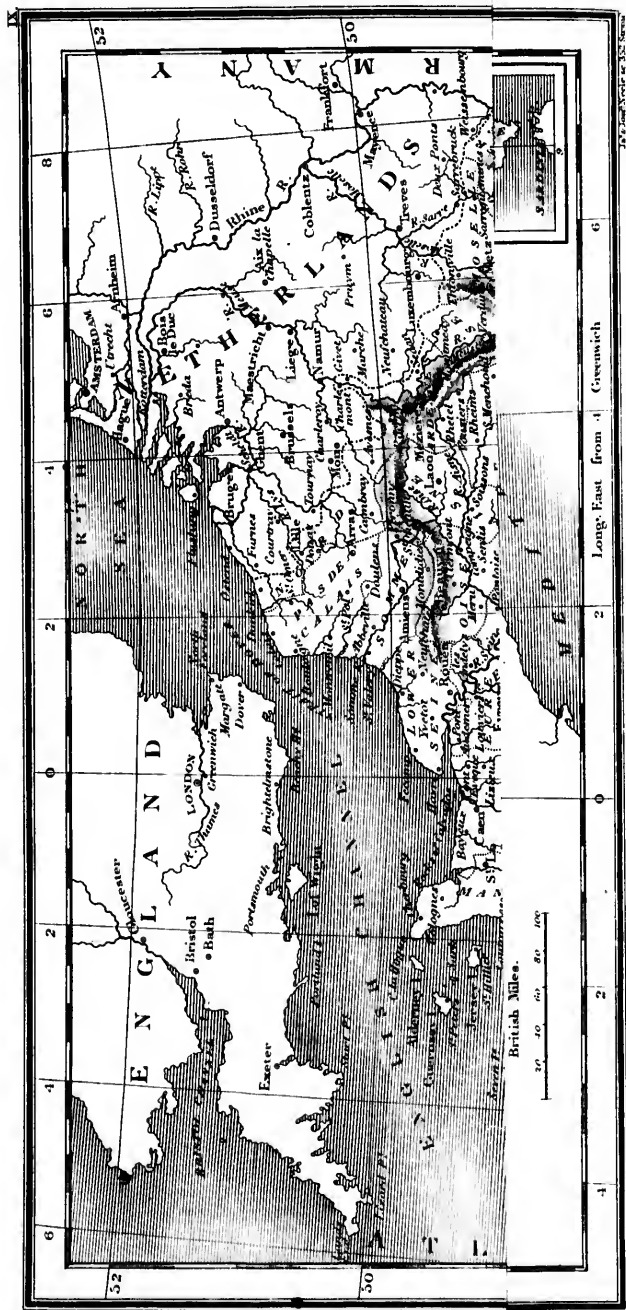
FRANCE

British Miles.



Long. East from Greenwich

London Published Map of France for J. Neumann & Co. in the author's possession.



London Published May 17, 1852 by J. Mineman & the other Proprietors.

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remedied without the grant of those claims upon which the catholics still pertinaciously insist; while others apprehend that such a remedy would be worse than the disease.

FRANCE.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 600 } between { 42½ and 51, North latitude.	
Breadth 550 } between { 5, West, and 8, East longitude.	

FRANCE, before the revolution, contained 161,000 square miles, with 161 inhabitants to each; and it is now reduced nearly to the same dimensions: but, from the subsequent increase of population, there are now more than 186 to each square mile.

NAME.] France took its name from the Franks or *Free-men*, a German nation, who, having conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants, took possession of the north-eastern parts of the country.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by the English Channel and the Netherlands 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. By the treaty of the year 1815, concluded between the allied powers and Louis XVIII., the line of boundary was traced along the Netherlands, so as to leave Philippeville and Mariembourg, with the whole duchy of Bouillon, without the French frontier: then passing by the Saar, it left out Saar-Louis: proceeding by the Lautre, it allowed Weissenbourg to the French. It followed the course of the Rhine to the neighbourhood of Basle; turned off to the south-west toward the district of Mount Jura; and left the Pays de Gex to the Helvetic state, to be united with the canton of Geneva. Thence, to the Mediterranean, the limits were precisely the same as in the year 1790.

DIVISIONS.] The ancient provinces of France were divided by the first revolutionary assembly into 83 departments, which were increased by new acquisitions to 108. In consequence of the subtraction of twenty-two after the pacification of Paris, eighty-six now form the aggregate number. Both the former and the latter divisions of the realm are given in the following list:

Ancient Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.
French Flanders	Nord	Douai
Artois	Pas de Calais	Arras
Picardy	Somme	Amiens
	Lower Seine	Rouen
	Calvados	Caen
Normandy	Manche	Coutances
	Orne	Alençon
	Eure	Evreux



Ancient Provinces,	Departments.	Chief Towns.
	Seine	Paris { N. L. 48. 50. E. L. 2. 25,
Isle of France	Seine & Oise	Versailles.
	Oise	Beauvais.
	Aisne	Laon.
Champagne	Seine & Marne	Melun.
	Marne	Chalons sur Marne.
	Ardennes	Sedan.
	Aube	Troyes.
	Upper Marne	Chaumont.
Lorraine	Meuse	Bar sur Ornain
	Moselle	Metz.
	Meurthe	Nanci.
	Vosges	Epinal.
Alsace	Lower Rhine	Strasbourg.
	Upper Rhine	Colmar.
	Isle & Wilaine	Rennes.
Bretagne	Lower Loire	Nantes.
	Cotes du Nord	St. Brieux.
	Finisterre	Quimper.
Maine and Perche ..	Morbihan	Vannes.
	Sarthe	Le Mans.
Anjou	Mayenne	Laval.
	Mayenne and Loire..	Angers.
Touraine	Indre & Loire	Tours.
	Loiret	Orleans.
Orleanois	Eure & Loire	Chartres.
	Loire & Cher	Blois.
Berri	Cher	Bourges.
	Indre	Chateauroux.
Nivernois	Nievre	Nevers.
Bourbonnois	Allier	Moulins.
	Yonne	Auxerre.
Burgundy	Côte d'Or	Dijon.
	Saone & Loire	Macon.
	Upper Saone	Vesoul.
Franche-Comté	Doubs	Besançon
	Jura	Lons le Saulnier.
	Ain	Bourg.
Poitou	Vienne	Poitiers.
	Deux Sevres	Niort.
	Vendée	Fontenay le Comte.
Saintonge and Aunis	Lower Charente	Saintes.
	Charente	Angouleme.
Angoumois	Creuse	Guéret.
Marche	Upper Vienne	Limoges.
	Correze	Tulles.
Limosin	Puy de Dome	Clermont.
	Cantal	St. Flour.
Auvergne	Rhone	Lyon.
	Loire	Montbrison.
Lyonnois	Isero	Grenoble.
	Drome	Valence.
Dauphiné	Upper Alps	Gap.

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Ancient Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.
Guienne	Gironde	Bordeaux.
Perigord	{ Dordogne.....	Perigueux.
	{ Lot and Garonne....	Agen.
Quercy.....	Lot	Cahors.
Rovergue and Marche	Aveyron	Rhodez.
	{ Landes.....	Mont de Marsan.
Gascony	{ Gers.....	Auch.
	{ Arriege.....	Foix.
	{ Upper Pyrenees	Tarbes.
Bearn	Lower Pyrenees	Pau.
Roussillon.....	Eastern Pyrenees	Perpignan.
	{ Upper Garonne	Toulouse.
	{ Tarne	Albi.
Languedoc	{ Aude	Carcassonne.
	{ Herault	Montpellier.
	{ Gard	Nismes.
	{ Lozere	Mende.
Cevennes	{ Ardeche	Privas.
	{ Upper Loire	Le Puy.
	{ Mouths of the Rhone	Aix.
Provence	Lower Alps	Digne.
	{ Var	Toulon.
	{ Golo.....	Bastia.
Corsica.....	{ Liamone	Ajaccio.
Territory of Avignon and County of Venaisin	Vaucluse	Avignon.

Each department forms three, four, or five districts, called *arrondissements*. These are subdivided into cantons, which are composed of a certain number of *communes*. A commune is sometimes a single town, and sometimes an aggregate of several villages, possessing a mayor and municipality. All the considerable cities are divided into several communes.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] France is in general a plain country; but its appearance is very various in different parts, and many districts are finely diversified with hills and dales. 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 deserts.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France or its borders, are the Alps, which form its boundaries on the side of Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide it from Spain; the Vosges, which separate the department of that name from those of Upper Saone and Upper Rhine; Mount Jura, which divides France from Switzerland; and the Cevennes in the south, a chain which comprehends the highest mountains in France.

FORESTS.] The chief forests are those of Orleans (containing 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds) and Fontainebleau; and near Morchismoir is also a fine forest. Beside these, there are numbers of woods, some of which, though not called forests, are worthy of the name.

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 is thrown, it causes a noise like thunder.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its course north and north-west, being, with all its windings from its source to the sea, supposed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone flows on the south-west to Lyons, and then runs to the 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: it afterward turns to the north-west, and proceeds to the Bay of Biscay. The Seine, rising in the Côte d'Or, runs to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English Channel at Havre-de-Grace. To these we may add the Saone, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which rises in the department of the Upper Vienne, and discharges itself into the Bay of Biscay at Rochefort; the Rhine, which, having its source in Switzerland, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the Saar in its progress; the Somme, which rises in the department of Aisne, and, passing by Peronne and Amiens, falls into the English Channel below Abbeville; the Var, which runs to the southward from the Alps, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, west of Nice; and the Adour, which rises near the Pyrenees, and, running from east to west by Tarbes and Dax, flows into the Bay of Biscay below Bayonne.

CANALS.] The advantages which arise to France from those rivers, are greatly improved by the canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Louis XIV. That of Languedoc was one of his works: it was intended for a communication between the Ocean and the Mediterranean, for the more speedy 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, travelers easily pass by water to St. Omer, Gravelines, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of eighteen leagues, to the great benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation exceedingly commodious and beneficial.

MINERAL WATERS AND } The waters of Barege, which lie near
REMARKABLE SPRINGS. } the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have been preferred to all others in France, for the recovery of health; but probably the cures said to have been performed by them may be more reasonably attributed 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 Barege, are celebrated mineral waters and baths, to which people resort, as to the English baths, in the 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 is unnecessary to enumerate all the other mineral wells in France, or all the remarkable springs; but there is one near Aigue, 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.

METALS AND MINERALS.] France has many unworked mines, which would be very productive, if proper attention should be paid to them:

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but at present they do not yield a sufficiency for consumption. Excursions, however, have been made to bring into use the mines of iron with which the northern departments abound; and these and some other mines have been worked with success.

The late province of Languedoc is said to contain veins of gold and silver. Alsace has mines of silver and copper. Alabaster, black marble, jasper, coal, and jet, are found in various departments. Bretagne abounds with mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. Saltpetre is made in every part of the kingdom. In Berri there is a mine of ochre, which serves for melting metals, and for dyeing, particularly the best drab cloth; and in the province of Anjou are several quarries of fine white stone. Turquoises and other gems are found; 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 in the interior parts of the country, is in general mild and wholesome; but some authors think that it is not so salubrious as is pretended, and that the French have been too successful in giving false prepossessions in favor 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, though coal has been lately brought more into use than it ever was before our time. The soil is excellent, and produces corn, wine, oil, and almost every luxury of life. Some of the fruits have a higher flavor than those of England; but the pasturage and tillage are not comparable to ours.

VEGETABLES.] Oak, elm, ash, and other trees, common in England, are found in France; which also abounds with esculent roots, all kinds of salads, and excellent fruits, particularly grapes, figs, prunes, chestnuts, apples in the northern provinces, and capers in the southern. It produces hemp, flax, manna, saffron, tobacco, and many drugs. Silk is so abundantly produced, beside what is imported, as to afford a flourishing trade. The French wines 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, all of them are excellent, particularly those of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontac, Hermitage, and Frontiniac: and there are few constitutions, be they ever so valetudinary, to which some one or other sort is not adapted. We may add, that the French brandy is better than any other production of vinous spirit. Olive oil is made in large quantities, particularly in the provinces nearest to the Mediterranean; but the consumption is so great that much is imported from Italy: the inferior sort supplies the sope manufactories of Marseilles. Languedoc produces the herb called kali, which, when burned, makes excellent barilla. The French were formerly famous for horticulture; but they are at present inferior to the English in the management of their gardens.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, except wolves and wild boars. The horses, black cattle, and sheep, are far inferior to the English; nor is the wool of their sheep so fine: but the hair and skin of the chamois, or mountain-goat, are more valuable than those of the English goats. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and those of England, but that the former country 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 length of which, taken together, is about 400 feet, and the breadth 60. The descent 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: it is then put into pans, and great quantities of salt are extracted from it. At Baulme, in the department of Doubs, is a cavern above 300 feet under ground, full of icicles: and at the bottom is a little river, of which it has been frequently said that it flows in the winter, and is frozen in the summer: but this assertion is not true. In a calcareous hill near Arci, in the department of the Yonne, are some curious caves, one of which is divided into many chambers, containing great quantities of stactites in the most fantastic forms.

A remarkable spring is that of Vaucluse, which, instead of rising with gentle murmurs and with fluid transparency, is at once a turbulent and foaming stream, issuing under a rock, which is 300 feet high, and forcing its way down a deep descent among dark moss covered with blocks of stone.

Among the natural curiosities of this country may likewise be reckoned the plain of Crau, in Provence, which is perhaps the most singular stony desert in Europe. It is about five leagues in diameter, and contains between 20 and 25 square leagues, or about 150,000 English miles. It is entirely composed of 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 26,000,000; and that number is supposed to have been nearly augmented to thirty millions.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The French, in their persons, are not so tall as their neighbours; but they are well proportioned and active, and more free than most other nations from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their sprightly wit than their personal charms: yet many have very pleasing features and interesting countenances. The female peasants, in general, are remarkably deficient in beauty, and are best described by being contrasted with women of the same rank in England. The upper classes accomplish themselves with 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, the 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 characteristic; 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 incites other nations. This character is so conspicuous both in the higher and middling ranks, as to produce excellent officers; and it also appears in the common soldiers of France, who, it must be confessed, in the late war against the allied powers, exhibited prodigies of valor.

¶ The French affect freedom and wit; but fashionable dresses and di-

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versions engross too much of their conversation. Their diversions are much the same with those of the English; but their gallantry is of a different complexion. Their attention to the fair degenerates into gross foppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting indecent freedoms; but the seeming levities of both sexes are not so frequently attended with criminality as persons unaccustomed to their manners would be induced to expect. Perhaps, indeed, there are more instances of a violation of the conjugal vow in France than in other countries; but appearances of grossness and of indelicate familiarity must not always be construed into guilt.

That politeness which pervaded every class before the revolution, suffered a severe shock from the ebullition of those fierce and licentious passions which were brought into action by the convulsions of the state. The ordinary manners assumed a strong tincture of rudeness, sometimes approaching to brutality; and, though this coarseness subsided on the return of interior tranquillity, the former refinement has not yet been fully restored. Perhaps the resentment and ill-will with which the French were inspired against the English, for promoting every measure which led to their humiliation and disgrace, obstructed the display of that politeness which our countrymen were previously so ready to acknowledge. When this quality, however, flourished in full luxuriance, it was far from being indicative of cordiality or friendship. A Frenchman would lavish compliments, and repeat his offers of service, without affixing any serious meaning to the terms which he employed. This practice seemed to have a good effect, in making persons pleased with themselves; but no man of penetration could be duped by such insincerity. It is not unworthy of remark, that this external polish prevailed in France, more than in any other European country, above seven hundred and fifty years ago, when William the Norman sailed from its coast upon his expedition to our island.

This polish, as we learn from experience, is not incompatible with the most unfeeling barbarity. The massacre of St. Bartholomew will not be forgotten by the readers of history; and the still more horrible enormities, deliberately perpetrated, and coolly vindicated, in the progress of the revolution, seem to indicate a callosity of disposition. This censure may appear harsh; but there is apparently a strong foundation for it: Gaiety went hand in hand with cruelty: and he who had stained himself with the blood of his fellow-creatures, would repair from the scene of guilt to the theatre, and enjoy the prevailing mirth, as if he had felt no compunction, or had been the most innocent of mankind.

Another proof of the want of feeling may be drawn from that fondness for military glory which has for ages prevailed in France. Such a passion is necessarily inconsistent with humanity and with the refined feelings of the soul; and the licentiousness of the warlike character has a tendency to subvert or impair domestic habits and private virtues. The idleness which it introduces also prompts to the practice of gaming, which is diffused by the force of example among other classes of the community, and is productive of serious mischief. This habit spreads even among the women; and its effects are not altogether favorable to their chastity or their morals.

In French society, the females make a more prominent figure than in other communities. Being remarkably free from diffidence or reserve, they take the lead in conversation, discuss every subject with an air of authority, and settle even the most important political questions with the same ease with which they expatiate upon points of dress and external decoration. They are more active and assiduous in the management of

ordinary trade than their husbands, who, acquainted with the superior influence of the fair in recommending the produce of the shop, or in procuring a good price for an indifferent article, variously amuse themselves in the mean time.

The fashions of dress, in France, are extremely variable. The women have great taste in affairs of that kind; but they do not always exercise it with effect, because a fondness for variety must sometimes militate against decorative elegance. In the earlier years of the revolution, the men affected to disregard dress, and seemed to be proud of that slovenly appearance which, in their opinion, suited republican plainness; but their fondness for finery gradually resumed its sway, though the ridiculous and fantastic foppery of a *petit-maitre* of the old school is now rarely witnessed.

Upon the whole, the French may be characterised as a gay, lively, volatile people, more influenced by sentiment and passion than by sedate judgement, impelled by the ideas of the moment without regard to the probable result of future reflexion, destitute of fixed principles of morality and virtue, floating between superstition and infidelity, and exhibiting, amidst the most temperate habits in ordinary life, a warmth and vehemence at which phlegmatic observers are surprised and disgusted.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The French capital is highly worthy of particular notice. When Gaul was under the Roman government, Lutetia stood nearly on the same spot where Paris is now situated. The modern name was given to it by the Franks, because it was the chief town of the Parisii, a Gallic nation. It was the royal seat of Clovis; and, though it was not inhabited by Charlemagne, he attended to its augmentation and improvement. It was nearly destroyed by the Normans; but it was quickly rebuilt, and it gradually acquired sufficient strength to withstand and baffle a long siege from those fierce invaders. In the Seine are two small islands, called St. Louis and Notre-Dame; on the former stood the ancient city: The present extent of Paris, along the river, is almost four miles and a half: its breadth is between three and four miles from the new southern wall to that of the north. Many of the streets are narrow, dark, and dirty; and, even amidst the recent improvements, few of them have pavement for the accommodation of foot-passengers, who are therefore exposed to the constant danger of personal injury from the negligence of unfeeling horsemen, and of the furious drivers of coaches and *cabriolets*. The houses in general are built of stone, are very high, and have a distinct family on each floor. Instead of presenting a full front to the street, many of them exhibit only the side of a large wing; and a massy gate opens into a spacious court, surrounded with buildings. In some parts of the town, the shops attract by elegant fronts and a tasteful display of commodities: but, in most of the streets, they have a very unpromising appearance, far different from the inviting aspect of the shops in the British metropolis. The streets are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, so as to suggest ideas 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 *fiacres*, hired by the numerous foreigners who visit that city; and, in truth, a great part of the trade of Paris arises from the constant succession of visitants who arrive daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. For this attractive influence, the people are indebted 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, the excellence of the wine, and the general purity of the air and climate of France. With all these advantages, Paris, in general, will not bear a comparison

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with London, in the more essential circumstances of a thriving foreign and domestic trade, the cleanness of the streets, the neatness of the houses (especially within) or the plenty and goodness of water. In the houses the floors are frequently of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being sprinkled with water, and swept once in a day. These floors, the stone stairs, the want of wainscoting in the rooms, and the thick party-walls of stone, are, however, good preservatives against fire, which seldom does any damage in this city. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are covered with tapestry or damask. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented with testers and curtains.

Squares, which are the chief ornaments of cities, abound in Paris; above seventy are reckoned, many of which, however, have no attractions. The most striking are the Royal Square or Place, those of Victory and Vendôme, of Louis XV. and the Dauphin. The bridges are not particularly remarkable for beauty or grandeur; but that of Neuilly, at some distance from the city, is one of the finest in Europe. The gates of St. Denis and St. Martin are elegant triumphal arches, which do honor to the age of Louis XIV., and some of the barriers, situated at the avenues of the suburbs, are handsome and stately.

The public structures in Paris are numerous and magnificent. His majesty principally resides at the Tuilleries, a palace which Catharine de Medicis left unfinished, and which was completed by Louis XIV. The front consists of four handsome pavilions, beside a large one in the centre: these are connected by four ranges of building; but there is an obvious want of uniformity, as the five orders of architecture are incoherently mingled. The grand entrance to this edifice was adorned by Napoleon with a beautiful triumphal arch, which the king has suffered to remain, though the statue of the tyrant, which appeared in a car over the centre, has been indignantly removed. The Luxembourg palace surpasses the Tuilleries in magnificence, and the bold style of its architecture is accompanied with elegance and regularity. It is now the place of meeting for the peers, who represent the whole body of French nobility; while the commons meet in the hotel de Bourbon. The most ancient royal palace is the Louvre; but the beautiful and splendid additions to it are not of an earlier date than the reign of Louis XIV. In this building is kept the royal museum, which, notwithstanding the removal of the rich spoils of Italy and Germany, still exhibits many admirable works of art. The Palais Royal, which passed from the crown to the Orleans family, is in the form of a parallelogram, consisting of the most elegant modern architecture. It was designed by the late duke to the purposes of trade, amusement, and debauchery.

Among the religious edifices, the cathedral (or church of Notre-Dame) is pre-eminently distinguished. It is referred by some antiquaries to the eleventh century, by others to the twelfth. It is supported by 120 columns, which form a double colonnade, extending from one extremity of the fabric to the other. In the eastern front are three portals, profusely and curiously ornamented. Over this part are two towers, rather stately than elegant. Forty-five chapels are included in the spacious church: the choir, which has been modernised, is superb, and adorned with the attractive beauties of painting and sculpture. The abbey-church of St. Germain des Prés exhibits the remains of ancient magnificence. That of St. Étienne du Mont, though irregularly built, is greatly admired. Some of the modern churches are constructed in a style of elegant simplicity. The Pantheon has the air of a pagan temple, rather than the appearance of a Christian church. It was principally intended for a receptacle

of the remains of great men and estimable citizens : but the part which was designed for a church is not yet completed. During the republican government, many of the churches were used for profane or secular purposes : but some were restored by Napoleon to their former use, when he affected a zeal for religion, and others were re-opened on the return of the Bourbon family.

There are many hospitals and charitable institutions at Paris; and some of the suppressed monasteries are rendered subservient to these beneficent purposes. The most ancient establishment for the cure or relief of disease, is the Hotel-Dieu, which, for a long period, was under the most negligent and improper management, but is now conducted with the most attentive care. A magnificent building is appropriated to the reception of infirm or disabled soldiers : it is called the Hotel of Invalids, or of Mars, and affords excellent accommodation for its numerous inmates. In the hospital of Pity, 2000 children of soldiers, who have fallen in the cause of their country, are maintained and educated. The Foundling Hospital is under judicious regulations, and the facility of introducing an infant within its walls, without a disclosure of its mother's shame, may be mentioned as a contrast to the difficulty experienced in a similar institution near London. Some may be of opinion that this facility tends to encourage vicious propensities; but it certainly operates to the prevention of infanticide. The institutions for the blind, and for the deaf and dumb, ought not to pass without notice. These establishments are so ably managed, that the inmates are not only enabled to live in comfort, but are rendered useful to society by the various works and manufactures which they are taught to execute.

With regard to the population of Paris, we may observe, that it declined, as might have been expected, during the most turbulent period of the revolution : but it now appears to be progressive. The natives, when they are questioned on this subject, exaggerate the amount; and some even swell it to 800,000; but it is supposed, by more accurate observers, not to exceed 750,000, with an inclusion of the environs.

The palace of Versailles, though magnificent, 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), are astonishing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a stranger's attention. Trianon, 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 the court, and the gratification of popular and foreign curiosity. St. Cloud, the favorite residence of Napoleon, was purchased by Louis XVI., who manifested his taste in the selection of this romantic spot. The building is handsome, the apartments are elegantly decorated, and the gardens are greatly admired. The chateau of Marli was destroyed amidst the revolutionary convulsions; but the park and gardens are still visited with pleasure.

Lyon enjoyed the next rank to Paris in magnitude and population, before the order for its demolition was issued by the vindictive malignity of the convention. The order was only executed in part; and, after the elevation of Bonaparté to the supreme power, the city again began, through his encouragement, to flourish by the industry of its manufacturers, whose silken articles are still in high request. It is situated at the confluence of the Rhone and the Saone, both rivers flowing through the city, with well-built houses of stone on each bank. It contains some handsome squares,

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particularly La Belle Cour, two sides of which were erected by Bónaparté, who also built the best bridge which the town exhibits. The cathedral is a fine building in the Moresque style, and the archbishop's palace is stately, but not elegant. The population of this city is far short of what it was before the revolution; but it is still supposed to amount to 95,000.

Bordeaux is not equal to Lyons as a manufacturing town; but its colonial and foreign commerce renders it more flourishing than that city. The interior parts of the town are not handsome or striking; but some magnificent public buildings, and many elegant private houses, are seen in different parts. Among the former may be mentioned the cathedral, the palace built by Napoleon, the exchange, the old town-house, and the ducal palace, long occupied by the parliament. Beside the university, this city is honored with an academy of sciences, and one for the cultivation of the polite arts.

Marseilles is one of the finest cities in France. The old town, indeed, is not distinguished by beauty of structure, though many parts appear to have some curious remains of Roman brick-work: but the new town compensates the deficiency of its neighbour. As its commerce increases, so does its magnitude. It has a noble harbour, and, from the great variety of persons assembled by its extensive concerns, it would seem as if Europe, Asia, and Africa, were brought into contact. It rivals Bordeaux in the number of inhabitants, supposed to be about 97,000.

Louis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a mean 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 one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the exterior port. Its arsenal, established also by that monarch, 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.

The fame of Brest is also modern; for its harbour was not brought into public notice before the year 1631. The entrance into this port is difficult and dangerous, from the narrowness of the passage, and the number of subaqueous rocks: but there is this advantage on the other hand, that vessels can go out with almost every wind. Safe anchorage can be afforded in the road to five hundred ships of war; and the largest vessels find a sufficient depth of water in the harbour. The town and its approaches are so well fortified, that even a powerful enemy must be content with the mere opportunities of blockade. Docks, rope-walks, magazines, founderies, and marine academies, announce the object and importance of this national establishment; but the town, though it has an elegant suburb, is not recommended by the neatness or beauty of its buildings; nor is it so populous as might be expected; for it is said to be occupied by only 30,000 persons.

Rouen, formerly the capital of the duchy of Normandy, is still the see of an archbishop, and contains 75,000 inhabitants. Its cathedral, erected by William the Conqueror, is a magnificent structure, in the finest Gothic style; but the town is ill-built, and the streets are narrow and crooked. It is connected with one of its suburbs by a remarkable bridge, which rises and falls with the tide, being composed of boats, lashed together. By elevating a draw-bridge in the centre, one or more boats are made to slip out, so that vessels may pass with ease; and the boats are quickly replaced. This town flourishes in point of trade; for

many colonial and foreign products and commodities, procured from Havre de Grace, are sent by the citizens over the whole department; and their woollen and other manufactures also afford the means of great commercial profit.

Although Lisle is not a maritime town, its inhabitants, who amount to 67,000, are as studious of commerce as if they had the advantage of a fine harbour. Many of them fit out vessels, or have an interest in those which sail from Dunkirk, Calais, and Ostend. The town displays fine streets and handsome squares: and the citadel and its accompaniments are distinguished by that strength which would long baffle all the efforts of besiegers.

Strasbourg is a large, populous, and strong town. Its cathedral is admired for its grandeur and magnificence; and the spire, which rises to the height of 574 feet, attracts peculiar notice. The trade and manufactures of the place are in a flourishing state.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV., justly styled the Great, the famous Colbert, minister to Louis 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, in a trading capacity, as she did then in a warlike character; 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 always possess great inland and neighbouring trade.

The silk manufacture was introduced into France so late as the reign of Henry IV.; and, in the time of his grandson Louis XIV., Tours alone employed 8000 looms and 800 mills. 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 its silk manufacture is now rivaled by that of England, where the French protestants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. Next to Tours and Lyons, Paris, Chatillon, and Nismes, were also celebrated for silk manufactures. France, before the revolution, contained 1500 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. These manufactures declined during the war; but they are now reviving, and the woollen cloths and stuffs, more especially at Abbeville, Amiens, and Paris, are said to be little inferior to those of England, and have greatly injured them in some of the continental markets, 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 linen, sail-cloth, and sope; Clermont for fine thread, lace, stuffs, and paper; Nismes for fine serges; Canbray for cambries; St. Quintin for lawns; and the province of Picardy for plate glass.

The French exports are wine, brandy, liqueurs, oil, silk, satin, linen, woollen cloth, tapestry, lace, gold and silver embroidery, toys, trinkets, perfumery, paper, prints, books, drugs, dyes, fruit. The imports are hardware, earthenware, cotton, metals, hemp, flax, silk, wool, horses, East and West India goods, &c.

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prevailed in France; and, for many centuries, the aristocratic spirit of that system kept the people in a dependent state; and, even after the increasing vigor of the court had humbled the nobility, the middle and lower classes, though they profited by the occasional meetings of the states-general, were little better than slaves. The royal despotism was at its height in the reign of Louis XIV., by whom all ranks were equally oppressed. When the general assembly ceased to be convoked, the parliaments of the different provinces, originally instituted for legal and judicial purposes, began to assume the character of guardians of liberty, and sometimes ventured to oppose, but with little effect, the arbitrary edicts of the court. These parliaments were suppressed at the revolution, when all parts of the old government seemed to be equally obnoxious to the innovating politicians of the day.

The French, by the revolution, obtained a new constitution, upon the principle that all men are free and equal in their rights. After the death of Louis XVI., another code was framed and adopted, which, in 1795, was succeeded by another. By this innovation, the government was vested in a directory of five members, and in a legislative body composed of a council of elders (two hundred and fifty members) and a council of five hundred. In 1799 this constitution was likewise overthrown, and a new form of government erected, consisting of a conservative senate of eighty members, a tribunate of one hundred, a legislative body of three hundred, and three consuls, nominated for ten years. In 1802, Bonaparté was declared first consul for life; and he pretended to act under the forms of this code, after he had assumed the title of emperor. On his abdication, in 1814, the senate ordered a new constitution to be prepared, on the basis of a limited monarchy; but Louis XVIII., who would not suffer it to be imposed upon him, made material alterations in it. It was decreed that a chamber of peers should be selected for life by the king, and an assembly should be chosen by the people, which should be renewed in five years; that the two assemblies should never be prevented from having one session in a year; and that no law should pass, nor any tax be imposed, without the assent of both; but that the king alone should propose the subjects or points of legislation. With a view of securing the maturity of wisdom, it was required that every deputy should have completed the fortieth year of his age; and, to prevent the choice of indigent members, all candidates were expected to pay above forty pounds *per annum* in direct taxes. The elections, as settled by this code, were not so numerous or so free as the people wished; for only 262 deputies were to be chosen; and political colleges, that is, bodies of men formed from the mass of the freeholders by the crown, were authorised to conduct the process. The ministers of state were declared to be responsible for the advice which they should give to the king, or for acts of delinquency and criminality; and, in case of that impeachment which the popular representatives might bring forward, they were to be tried by the peers. The judges were to be appointed by the crown, but not influenced in any other respect.

When Louis, in the following year, dissolved the chamber of deputies, who had acted under the sway of Napoleon, he convoked another body, augmenting the number, and allowing eligibility at the age of twenty-five years. Other alterations were subsequently made; but the choice of numbers still remained too much in the power of the court.

[LAWS.] With respect to the judicial administration of the country, it is grounded on the Roman or civil law, and local customs. Each district has a primary judicial tribunal, and each department a criminal

judicature. To every aggregate of three departments, a tribunal of appeal is allowed, which takes cognisance of all the causes determined by the tribunals of the districts under its jurisdiction. Each canton has a justice of the peace. All the courts of appeal acknowledge a superior tribunal, called the *court of cassation*, possessing the power of annulling those sentences which appear to be illegal, and of referring the examination of the cause to any other court.

REVENUE.] The revenue, in the year 1788, was 20 millions and a half sterling; and the ordinary expenditure exceeded the revenue by five millions and a half.

The extraordinary expenses of the war carried on by the republic were principally defrayed by the seizure of church lands, confiscations, requisitions and contributions imposed on the conquered countries. In 1799, the receipts were computed at 476,000,000 francs, or 19,833,300*l.* sterling, and the expenses at 726,000,000 francs, or 30,250,000*l.* sterling. This was an alarming deficiency; but, as the war was not then closed, it was not very difficult to supply the demand, particularly as the practice of borrowing was also a part of the French system of finance.

In 1816, the supplies requisite for the public service were estimated at 800 millions of francs, or 33,333,300*l.* sterling, including the interest due to the national creditors. In 1733, the public debt had declined to about 85 millions sterling, from a much larger sum; but, in 1784, it had so far increased as to demand 8,933,000*l.* for the mere interest. After the storms of the revolution, and the occasional dread of a national bankruptcy, or of the application of a sponge to the whole debt, it amounted, in 1814, (according to the baron Bignon,) to 2919 millions of francs, or 121,625,000*l.* sterling. In 1820, the public expenditure exceeded 21,300,000 pounds, and the interest of the debt was about nine millions and a half sterling.

ARMY AND NAVY.] In the reign of Louis XIV. the magnitude of the army proved very oppressive to the people; and, under his grandson, even the peace establishment was nearly augmented to 200,000 men. In 1792, before the war arose with Austria, the force was estimated at 152,000. When hostilities became more general, it is supposed that France had, beyond and within her frontiers, at least 650,000 men in arms. When Louis XVIII. was placed on the throne by the allied princes, they insisted on a reduction of the army to a low standard; yet, in 1821, it exceeded the amount of 140,500.

Before the commencement of the seventeenth century, the French government had no standing navy, being in the habit of purchasing or hiring ships from the merchants. Louis XIII. was so far sensible of this deficiency and inconvenience, that he created a small navy; and his son paid great attention to that branch of national defence making gradual additions to his fleet, until it amounted to 100 sail of the line: but it was greatly diminished in the battle of La Hogue, and in other engagements with the English. In 1799, the republican navy consisted of 40 ships of the line and 50 frigates: but, in the war which then prevailed, it suffered severely from the superiority of the British marine. During the short peace which ensued, it had not time for revival; and the imperial navy, under Bonaparté, received a dreadful shock in the battle of Trafalgar. Farther losses reduced it to so low an ebb, that, at the return of peace, it did not far exceed the amount of forty ships, frigates included. In 1820, it consisted of seventy-six vessels, including brigs; and we do not believe that the amount is at present greater.

TITLES, &c.] The first national assembly after the revolution abo-

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ished all nobility, hereditary distinctions, difference of orders, titles, and prerogatives. Even the appellation of *Monsieur* was disused, and that of *Citizen* substituted for it. When Bonaparté, however, had assumed the sovereignty, the latter term was laid aside. He took the title of his *Imperial Majesty*, and his brothers were styled *their Imperial Highnesses*. He appointed marshals of the empire, grand dignitaries, an arch-elect, arch-chancellor, &c. He likewise instituted what was called a *legion of honor*, the commanders and members of which were nominated by himself. This was intended as an introduction to orders of nobility and hereditary distinctions, which he revived in the sequel.

Under the French monarchy, various orders of knighthood were instituted, some of which are now revived. One is the order of the Holy Ghost, which was established in 1579 by Henry III. A necessary preparative for this order is that of St. Michael. The badge is a golden cross, with the representation of a dove and of the arch-angel. Louis XIV. founded the knighthood of St. Louis for military merit; but, as he confined it to catholics, his successor gratified protestant officers with a similar decoration. The badge is a cross of eight points, with a sword on one side, and a chaplet of laurel on the reverse.

[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 paper currency for the creditors of the state; and the clergy were made dependent on pensionary establishments, paid out of the national treasury. By a subsequent constitution, it was declared that there was no predominant religion in France, and that none should be patronised or paid by the state; but that all sects and modes of worship should enjoy equal toleration. But, when the administration was vested in Bonaparté, he concluded, in 1801, a *concordat* or convention with the pope, by which the catholic faith was declared to be the religion of the great majority of the French citizens, and the government engaged to make a suitable provision for the bishops and ministers. The protestant religion was 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*, only 10 archbishops and 50 bishops were allowed for the whole kingdom; and, to the former, 15,000 francs were assigned as an annual income, while the latter were obliged to be content with 10,000. Louis XVIII., not fully approving this settlement, increased the number of prelates, and made some additions to the clerical funds.

[LITERATURE AND THE ARTS.] The French, like the other nations of Europe, were for many centuries immersed in barbarism. 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 calculated 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, with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was highly beneficial to French literature. During the reign of that prince, many natives of France 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 Etienne 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 its labors, 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.

Louis XIV. was the Augustus of France. The protection he gave to literature, 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, gained him more glory than all the military enterprises upon which he expended so many millions. The learned men, who appeared in France during his reign, are too numerous to be readily mentioned. The tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, deservedly obtained a very high reputation; the former 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. Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Massillon, carried the eloquence of the pulpit to a height which our divines have been unable to reach. In the historical department, 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.

In the *belles-lettres*, the lighter kind of poetry, lively essays, and miscellaneous works, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers; among whom we may place Montagne, d'Argens, Voltaire, and Rousseau, as the most considerable. In epistolary composition the French are also distinguished; and, if any of our writers have attained the elegance of Madame de Sevigné, they have not acquired the graceful ease with which it is accompanied. Many French novels, and sentimental tales, have excited attention and interest. Without referring to those of a distant period, we may observe, that the productions of Marmontel, Madame de Stael, and Mademoiselle Cottin, are lively and interesting. De-Lille is an ingenious and pleasing poet; and the comic drama is indebted for some lively pieces to the talent of Beaumarchais. But neither in our own time, nor at any former period, has France produced an epic poem that can be compared with *Paradise Lost*, or a genius of the same extensive and universal kind with Shakspeare, equally fitted for the gay and the serious, the humorous and the sublime.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Des-Cartes 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 subsequently flourished, particularly Clairault, Bezout, and d'Alembert; the last of whom, to the precision of a geometrician, united the talents of a fine writer.

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Scientific men have been very numerous in France since the middle of the last century; and persons of this description, notwithstanding the volatility of the French character, have been remarkably assiduous, patient, and persevering. Their discoveries in chemistry are particularly important; and they have illustrated almost every branch of philosophy. Buffon would deserve to be reckoned among men of science, if he had not been 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.

As painters, Poussin, Le Brun, and above all, Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Louis XIV. Since their time the French have had none who can be compared with them in the more noble kind of painting, unless we consider David as their rival. Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in most other countries of Europe. Engraving, an art allied to the former, has also been practised by the French with a great degree of excellence. Yet such liberal patronage has been afforded to English artists, that they now surpass even their ingenious neighbours.

The treatises of the French on ship-building stand unrivaled; but in the practice of the art they are outdone by the English. No genius has hitherto equaled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our superiors in architecture; but we now are their equals in this art.

UNIVERSITIES, PUBLIC COLLEGES, AND ACADEMIES.] Before the revolution, there were in France twenty-eight universities or public colleges, which were suspended during the progress of pretended political reform. Many of the number, after the storm had in some measure subsided, were re-organised as superior schools; particularly those of Angers, Bourdeaux, Caen, Montpellier, Orleans, Rheims, &c. The university of Paris, which was founded in the reign of Louis VII., was suppressed in 1792; but it has since been re-established, under the title of the Royal University of France, and invested with a controlling authority over the task of education in all parts of the kingdom. It consists of four colleges, situated in different divisions of the city, respectively devoted to theology, law, medicine, and to literature and science. The royal college, erected by Francis I., still exists, furnishing many students with gratuitous instruction.

The following literary establishments were supported out of the national treasury: the French Academy, those of the Belles-Lettres and the Sciences, the Royal Society of Medicine, King's Library, Observatory, and the Free School of Design. Under the republic, primary, central, and special schools were formed;—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.

In lieu of the three academies above-mentioned, the republican rulers of the state organised the National Institute; a society which Louis XVIII. thought proper to continue, because he considered it as useful and honorable to the nation. Each member is entitled to a salary of 1500 francs; and prizes are annually distributed among those proficient in science who make discoveries, those *litterati* who produce any valuable work on a given subject, and those artists who exhibit excellent specimens of their genius and taste. To this institution, which is now designated the Royal Academy, belong the most ingenious and celebrated

men in France; and honorary members from Great-Britain, Germany, and other countries, are occasionally added to the illustrious assemblage.

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 Louis XIV., are, as it were, loosened; and, in the present mode of writing and expressing themselves, the French too often disregard that purity of expression which alone can render a language classical and permanent. The encouragement given by that monarch to every proposal that tended to the refinement and perfection of the French language, was a prudent and politic scheme. He succeeded so far as to render it the most general 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 greatly inferior to the English: but it is well adapted to subjects void of elevation or passion, 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; et pardonne nous nos offenses, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offensés; et ne nous indui 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 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 with them, those of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a most curious account of the sepulchres of the French kings, discovered so far back as Pharamond; some of which, when broken open, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and in other parts of France, are to be seen triumphal arches; but the most perfect and beautiful one is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones by Marius and Catulus. At the same town are the remains of a theatre; but time has obliterated all its ornaments, though its great extent and dimensions may still be traced. When Gaul had been reduced to a province, the Romans took delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and sacred, some of which are more entire than those of Italy itself. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found at Chalons, and likewise at Vienne. Nismes, more particularly, exhibits valuable remains of ancient architecture. The famous Pont du Gard was raised in the Augustan age, by the Roman colony of Nismes, to convey a stream 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 are found at Nismes. The chief are the temple of Diana, the amphitheatre (which is thought to be the finest and most entire of any in Europe), and the house erected by the emperor Hadrian, called the Maison Carrée. The architecture and sculpture of this building are so beautiful, as to enchant even the most ignorant. "We do not (it is said) possess a more perfect monument of Roman grandeur, combined with exquisite taste. This remarkable edifice has six columns in front, and eleven on its sides. They are of the Corinthian order; the capitals are decorated with olive leaves, in which great beauty is displayed, as well as in the ornaments of the entablature. The profiles are perfect, and the cornice of the pedi-

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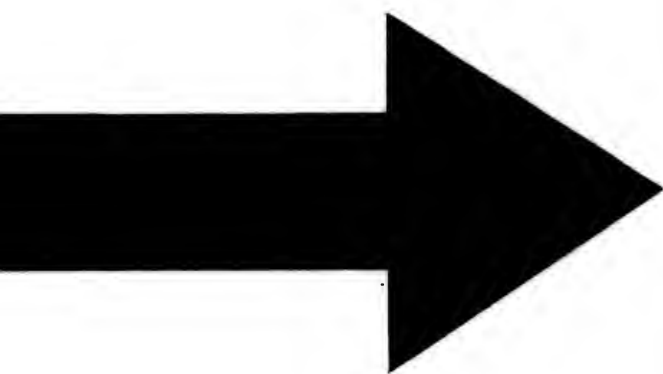
ment forms a very rich frame. The length of this edifice is seventy-two feet, the breadth thirty-six, and the height in proportion. The portico is ascended by twelve steps; and the only entrance is by a gate under the portico, the richness of which coincides with that which excites our admiration in the whole of the building." At Paris, in the Rue de la Harpe, may be seen the remains of the Thermæ, supposed to have been built by Julian the Apostate, about the year 356, upon the same model as the baths of Diocletian. 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 artificial curiosity is the subterraneous cavern at Paris. For the first building of that city, it was necessary to get the stone in the environs. As the town 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 150 feet deep, which induced the police and government to cause a number of buildings to be propped up by pillars: but, as the lofty buildings, towers, and steeples, seem to 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 which they were raised.

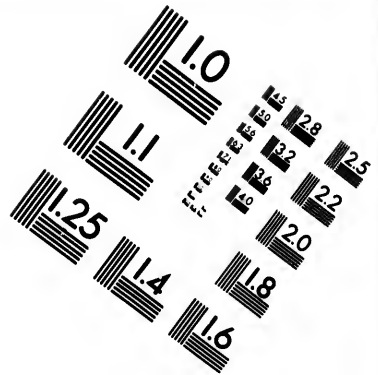
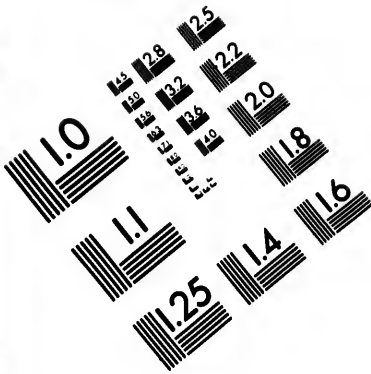
At Arles in Provence is an obelisk of oriental granite, 52 feet high: the diameter at the base is seven feet; and the whole is composed of only one stone. Roman temples and aqueducts are frequent in France. The most remarkable are in Burgundy and Guienne: the passage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiné is supposed to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of massy silver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty-one pounds, containing the story of Scipio's continence, is thought, but seemingly without sufficient authority, to be cœval 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 Trans-Alpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cis-Alpine Gaul, on the Italian side of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy. Like other European territories, 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, in the fifty-first year before the birth of Christ. Gaul continued in the possession of the Romans till the downfall of their 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 Frankealand, were a collection of several nations inhabiting Germany; and particularly the Saliî, who lived on the banks of the river Saal, and who cultivated the principles of jurisprudence better than their neighbours. The Saliî had a rule, which was subsequently applied by the Franks to the succession of the throne, excluding all females from the inheritance of sovereignty: it is well known by the name of the *Salic Law*.

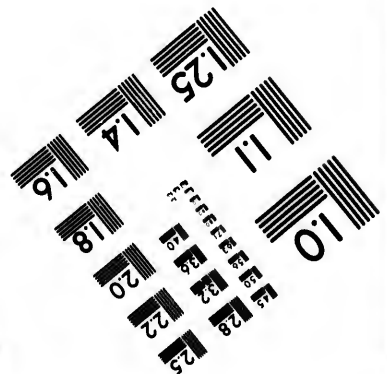
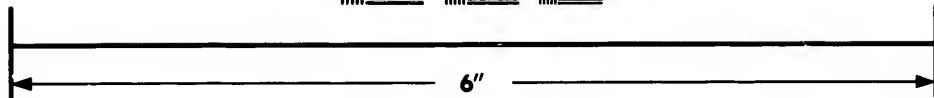
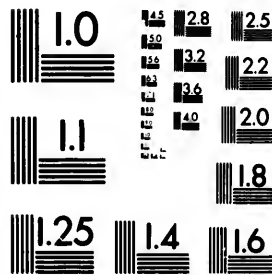
The Franks and Burgundians, after establishing their power, and reducing the natives to a state of slavery, distributed the lands among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings found it necessary to confirm







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their privileges, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they at length assumed independence, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave rise to the numerous principalities which formerly existed 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 nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, after the dissolution of the Roman empire, the first government in France seems to have been a mixed monarchy, the royal power being extremely circumscribed and limited by the feudal barons.

Among the Franks, the first Christian monarch was Clovis, who began his reign in 481, and was baptised, and introduced Christianity, in 496. His mind had been affected by the pathetic account which he received from missionaries of the death of Christ; and, insensible of the beneficial consequences of the mysterious sacrifice, he exclaimed, with religious fervor, "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 little respected either by him or his subjects.

From this period the French history is well known, and is frequently important; and we find the nation generally engaged in domestic broils or foreign wars. Some of its princes, in the eighth century, found cruel enemies in the Saracens, who over-ran Italy and Spain, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. In 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;—a measure which proved injurious to the power and prosperity of his family. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from 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. The success of that prince over Harold proved unfortunate to France, as it engaged the 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.

Passing over the dark ages of the crusades, the expedition to the Holy Land, and wars with England, we shall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe, in the reign of Francis I. 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 imperial throne of Germany, but was disappointed in his hopes by the rivalry of Charles V. of Austria. In 1520, Francis having invited Henry VIII. of England to an inter-

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view, 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, and entertainments of gallantry, with such exercises and pastimes as were in that age reckoned manly or elegant, rather than serious business, occupied both courts during eighteen days. 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. In his adventurous expedition into Italy, he was made prisoner at the battle of Pavia, in 1525, and obliged to agree to dishonorable terms (which he never meant to perform) to regain his liberty. His non-performance of those conditions occasioned another war between him and the emperor; and the rivalry of these princes tended to cherish the warlike spirit of the age, but not without the infliction of serious mischief upon society.

Notwithstanding his misfortunes and the turmoils of his reign, France was, at the time of his death, in a flourishing condition. In 1547, he was succeeded by his son Henry II., who, upon the whole, was an excellent and fortunate prince. This monarch continued the war with the emperor of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and he 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 have never since possessed any part of France. He married his son the dauphin to Mary of Scotland, in the hope of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this respect he was unsuccessful. He was unintentionally killed, in 1559, at a tilting-match, by the count of Montgomery.

He was succeeded by his son, Francis II., a weak, sickly, inactive prince, whose power was engrossed by a prince of the house of Guise, uncle to the beautiful queen of Scotland. This arbitrary assumption of power so disgusted Antony, king of Navarre, the head of the Bourbon family, that he joined some of the most powerful nobles of the realm in a strong opposition to the court; but the queen-mother (the famous Catherine of Medici) being obliged to take part with the Guises, the confederacy, which had adopted the protestant cause, was nearly dissolved, when the sudden death of Francis happened, in 1560, at the age of sixteen years.

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 son Charles IX. Her regency was a 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 Orléans; and the murderer was unjustly thought to have been instigated by 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 protestant leaders were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of murdering them all, if possible, in one night. The project proved too successful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's

day, 1572. The king himself assisted in the massacre, in which Coligni fell. The signal of slaughter was to be made by striking the great bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell, the work of death began, 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, suspecting his intentions, prepared to meet death with that fortitude which had ever distinguished him. Incapable of resistance, from the wounds he had received in a late attempt to assassinate him, he had scarcely, with an undismayed countenance, uttered these words, "Young man, respect these grey hairs, nor stain them with blood," when Besme 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 about 30,000 protestants were then murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a fresh peace was concluded in 1573 with the protestants, yet another war broke out in the next year, when the blood-stained Charles died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had some time before been chosen king of Poland. From that country he with some difficulty escaped to France, where he took quiet possession of the throne, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time supplied to the reformed nobles of France the feudal powers which 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; 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, 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, chiefly because the duke of Alençon had declared himself lord of the Netherlands. The war was finished within the year, by another pretended peace.

The king, from his accession, had plunged himself into a course of infamous debauchery and religious extravagance. He was entirely governed by his profligate favorites; but he possessed natural good sense. He began to suspect that the proscriptions of the protestants, and the exclusion of the king of Navarre from the succession, on account of his religion, were connected with an intention of placing the duke of Guise, the idol of the catholics, on the throne, to which he had some distant pretensions. Amidst this collision of interests, intestine broils were renewed in 1579; and the flame again burst forth in 1585, to the disadvantage of the protestants, through the abilities of the duke of Guise. The king thought him now so dangerous, that, when he and his brother had been invited to court, in 1588, they were by his majesty's orders, and almost under his eyes, basely assassinated. 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

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The readers of history are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry of Navarre, head of 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 the common necessities of life. He was, however, personally beloved; and no objection was urged against him, but that of religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, were divided among themselves; and the French in general were jealous of the Spaniards. Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, resolved to declare 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 favor; and, when he had 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. In 1598, he published the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to his old friends, the protestants, the free exercise of their religion; and, in the next year, the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry afterward chastised the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himself with great attention and success (assisted by the great Sully) to every branch of government. 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 object does not clearly appear), that he intended to form Christendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, and to drive the Turks out of Europe; while some attribute his preparations to a more ignoble motive, that of a criminal passion for a favorite 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 Medici, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was assassinated in his coach, in 1610, by one Ravalliac.

Louis XIII., son to Henry IV., was only nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he discarded his mother and her favorites, 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 in that kingdom, 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 army, to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars on account of religion in France. Historians say, that in these wars above a million of men lost their lives; that

150,000,000 livres were spent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, four hundred villages, two thousand churches, two thousand monasteries, and ten thousand houses, were destroyed during their continuance. That dreadful havoc and enormous outrages were perpetrated, we have no reason to doubt; but these calculations are generally the offspring of mere conjecture, teeming with exaggeration and excess.

Richelieu, by a masterly train of politics, though he was bigoted to popery, supported the protestants of Germany, and Gustavus Adolphus, against the house of Austria. After quelling the rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, he died some months before Louis, who, in 1643, left his son to inherit his throne.

During the minority of Louis XIV. the kingdom was convulsed 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 at other times a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a protestant had become a papist. 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 Louis assumed the government, he found himself the most absolute monarch that had ever filled the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarin, to put the internal administration into the hands of Colbert, who formed new systems for the commerce and manufactures of France, in which he was exceedingly successful.

To write the history of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Louis: 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 1685, and his persecutions of the protestants, he obliged them to take shelter in England, Holland, and 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 honors paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his own convenience, and at last raised against himself a confederacy of almost all the other princes of Europe. He was so well served, that he for some years firmly withstood this alliance; but, when he had provoked the English by his infidelities, the success of their arms under the duke of Marlborough, and of 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 a series of defeats and calamities: but, when he was reduced, in his declining years, to the desperate resolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was saved, in 1713, by the imbecility of the English Tory ministry. He died on the 1st of September, 1715.

The partiality of Louis to his natural children might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been assumed by the duke of Orleans. After this prince had governed with ability about eight years as regent, and the duke of Bourbon for three years as prime minister, the young king nominated his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be the

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chief director of the national concerns. Though the system of this minister was entirely pacific, yet the situation of affairs in Europe, on the death of the king of Poland in 1734, embroiled France with the house of Austria. The intention of Louis 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, in the sequel, to take a principal share in that war against Great-Britain, which was terminated by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

While the debauched and dissolute king was in the enjoyment of peace, which was only disturbed by his disputes with the different parliaments of the realm, his life was threatened by the fury of a fanatic malcontent, who wounded him with a pen-knife, as he was preparing to enter his coach. The daring assassin had mingled with the crowd of courtiers, but was instantly betrayed by his distracted countenance. He declared that it was not 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 of Paris. In this declaration he persisted, amidst exquisite tortures; and his judges, tired out with his obstinacy, consigned him to a death, the inhumanity of which was 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, and fastened to the scaffold by iron gyes. His right hand was burned 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 king of Portugal, fell in France under the lash of the civil power, for some 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. The parliaments eagerly seized an opportunity of humbling their spiritual enemies. The Jesuits, in various provinces, were cited before 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 banished them, and abolished their order in France.

Elate 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 magna-

nimity 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.

As to the war with Great-Britain, which was ended by the peace of Fontainebleau in 1763, its chief incidents, 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 tyranny of the Genoese, who claimed the sovereignty over it by right of conquest. Unable to support those pretensions, Genoa transferred them to France, on condition that Louis should put her in full possession of the adjacent island of Capraia, which the Corsicans had lately invaded and reduced. The king, to secure the prize at which he aimed, sent a considerable army to Corsica, while the natives, whose free suffrages had summoned Paoli, one of their chiefs, to the supreme government of the island, were intent upon a spirited defence. A brisk war was now carried on in the mountainous parts of the island; and it was not till after the French had severely experienced, in two campaigns, the enthusiastic courage which animates the champions of freedom, that they overwhelmed, by their superior numbers, this unfortunate people; nor had Louis much reason to triumph in the acquisition of a rugged and unproductive island, which he had purchased with the lives of several thousands of his bravest troops.

Louis XVI., who had already married the daughter of Maria Theresa, succeeded his grandfather in 1774. He reinstated the different parliaments which the late king had suppressed, and testified, in other respects, a regard for the wishes and interests of his people. Finding the finances deranged, he gave the direction of that department to M. Necker, a Swiss protestant, and a friend of liberty. If this minister had swayed the cabinet with regard to foreign politics, the court, in all probability, would not have interfered in the contest between Great-Britain and her American colonies. Louis, who was a man of honor and moderation, was not inclined to violate the treaty of peace; but the prime minister Maurepas, and the queen's party, would not suffer such an opportunity of injuring a rival nation to elude their grasp. As we have already recorded the chief incidents of the war which then arose, we shall merely observe, in this place, that, when the independence of the American states had been acknowledged, the success of their struggle for freedom invigorated that desire of shaking off the yoke of despotism, which the French had lately imbibed under the auspices of the parliamentary leaders. For some years, the growing spirit served only to enliven conversation: but, when the finances were involved in great disorder by the heavy charges of the war and the extravagance of the court, the politicians assumed a higher tone, and ventured to propose a reform of the administration. M. de Calonne, the new financial minister, being unable to remedy the disorder, advised the king to call an assembly of *notables*, or respectable and distinguished persons, for the purpose of deliberation. When this meeting took place in 1787, the minister recommended a territorial impost, in the nature of the English land-tax, from which no rank or order of men should be exempted, and an inquiry into the possessions of the ecclesiastics. 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.

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The grand and essential object of reform was to equalise the public burthens, 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 assessments; the crowds of new noblesse, who had purchased their patents, were by that shameful custom exempted from contributing proportionally to the expenses of the state: the magistrates likewise throughout the kingdom enjoyed their share of exemptions: so that the weight of the taxes fell almost entirely on those who were least able to bear them. Thus the nobility, clergy, and magistracy, were united against the minister; and their intrigues raised against him so loud a clamor, that, finding it impossible to stem the torrent, he not only resigned his post, but 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, which had not met since the year 1614. This proposal was far from being agreeable to the court; and, as the notables refused to give their sanction to any new taxes, they were dismissed by the king, who, having ordained some stamp-duties, desired the parliament of Paris to register the edict. When the magistrates protested against it, he banished them to Troyes; for even this mild prince could not consent to surrender, without a struggle, that authority which had been so long exercised by his predecessors. He imprisoned several members for having spoken freely at a royal session, and made such arrangements as diminished the dignity and authority of the parliamentary bodies. These and other arbitrary proceedings excited strong and general disgust.

No alternative remained now to Louis, but to plunge his country into all the calamities 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 depend upon the support even of the princes of his blood; but what afforded most serious matter of alarm was the spirit lately displayed among the soldiery, who, during some 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, that an *arrêt* was published, which fixed the meeting of the states-general at Versailles, for the 1st of May, 1789. At the same time every step was taken to secure the favorable opinion of the public. New arrangements took place in the administration; and 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 to enjoy 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 he should be pronounced guilty by a majority of three judges.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the states-general. But the minds of the French had long been agitated by various rumors; the unanimity that had been expected was extinguished by the jarring pretensions of each order of the states; and their mutual jealousies were attributed by the suspicions of the people to the intrigues of the

courtiers, 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 seemed ripe for revolt. The sovereign also, equally impatient of the obstacles which he encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; the influence of the queen in the cabinet was again established, and was attended by the removal of 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, was followed by some movements which seemed to indicate violent intentions. The states-general were surrounded by detachments of the guards, who waited only the orders of the court to proceed to extremities against the obnoxious representatives of the nation.

Had these manifestations of vigor been sustained by instantly attacking and entering Paris, it is not to be doubted that 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 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, surrendered, after a faint resistance. The Bastille was the next object of attack; and that awful engine of despotism, of which the name alone diffused terror, was entered (on the 14th of July) by the victorious assailants, who put the governor to death, on pretence of his having fired upon the people, after he had displayed a flag of truce. Very few prisoners were found in the fortress; but, to prevent it from being again used for the purpose of confinement, and to intimate an abhorrence of the cruelties which had been perpetrated in former reigns within its walls, it was eagerly and totally demolished.

With the Bastille expired that despotism which long prescription and military strength seemed to have rendered sacred and unassailable. The king was confounded at the shock; he dismissed the troops which he had collected, and declared his readiness to concur with the national assembly (for the commons had already usurped the undivided authority of the three orders) in every measure which might gratify his people. Necker was reinstated in his ministerial functions; and the assembly undertook the work of reform, with greater zeal than judgement. The titles and privileges of the higher orders were abolished: the parliaments were suppressed: monasteries were dissolved, and the possessions of the church seized for other uses. The first anniversary of the revolution was celebrated by a grand confederation; and, on that occasion, an altar was erected in the Champ de Mars; at which, after the solemnisation of mass, the king, the national representatives, the army, and the people, took an oath for the observance of that constitution which was then in progress. Before it was completed, the king, finding himself a prisoner of state, suspected and watched by the democratic leaders, endeavoured to escape to the frontiers, that he might have greater liberty of action, under the protection of troops that were not infected with the prevailing

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spirit: but he was unfortunately discovered, and compelled to return to the scene of his degradation. His two brothers, however, made their escape; and many of the nobility and clergy were also glad to effect a retreat, as various commotions, in which they were exposed to peculiar danger, had already occurred.

The new constitution, which, under the form of monarchy, tended to the establishment of democracy, was presented to the king in September, 1791. He declared his acceptance of it in writing; and, appearing before the assembly, solemnly consecrated the assent which he had 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 laws." Soon after this the second national council assembled.

The protection found in Germany by the emigrants, 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. In the mean time, the emperor Leopold, more eminent for the mild virtues of peace than for the exertions of war, seemed to be undetermined how to act. 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 he could not be regarded as a friend. His sudden death, in 1792, excited great consternation among the aristocratic party, and afforded joy and exultation to the supporters of the constitution. Another event no less unexpected, happened in the death of the Swedish monarch: 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, Francis, the young king of Hungary, (who was soon after chosen emperor), encouraged by the spirit of the Prussian court, began to exhibit greater enmity, and to use more severe language; and he at length required 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 government of France should be so constituted, as to remove from other powers all apprehensions of molestation and disturbance. These demands produced a declaration of war against him.

The first movements of the French were stained with defeat, and with the murder of Theobald Dillon, their leader, who fell a victim to the auspicious and savage ferocity of some of his soldiers. The court of Vienna explained the cause of the war, and retorted on the French nation some of the heavy charges contained in its hostile declaration. The Prussian monarch also issued a concise exposition of the reasons which determined him to take arms against France. He pleaded his alliance with the emperor, and honestly avowed 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, commander 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 said, that his design was not to interfere in the internal government.

When the war broke out, the party of Brissot prevailed in the assembly, and that factious leader, being intent on the formation of a republic, devised an atrocious scheme, calculated for the ruin of the king. The former assembly had been removed to Paris, with a view of securing the ready assistance of the populace, in any contest which might arise with the court; and the directors of the present legislature resolved to take advantage of that circumstance, by instigating the rabble to an attack of the palace, with a view of representing the mere operations of defence, on the part of the king, as acts of sanguinary despotism. Many lives were lost on both sides; but the chief havock was made among the Swiss guards, few of whom escaped. Another outrage was soon after perpetrated: for a great number of unfortunate royalists, who had been sent to different prisons without having committed any offence, were murdered by the emissaries of Robespierre and Danton, the flagitious leaders of a disorganising society, called (from the monastic hall in which its meetings were holden) the *Jacobin* club.

A convention was now called, as a substitute for the legislative assembly; and its first act was the subversion of the monarchy. A republic was ordered to commence from the 21st of September, 1792; and it was resolved that a process should be instituted against Louis, as a tyrant, and a treacherous promoter of foreign hostilities.

In the mean time, the combined troops met with great difficulties in their progress, and found that the conquest of France was a more arduous task than they had fondly imagined. Want of provisions, the prevalence of disease, and the danger of being surrounded, induced the duke of Brunswick, after insignificant instances of success, to retreat from France.

As the king of Sardinia was known to be friendly to the anti-Gallican confederacy, the invasion of Savoy was ordered, and the expedition proved quickly successful. The imprudence of the convention, in decreeing the incorporation of that duchy with France, excited wonder. After frequent declarations that the French would enter into no war with a 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 Truguet, 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, and the conquest of Worms followed: ample supplies of provisions and ammunition were found in those cities. Custine, pursuing his course along the Rhine, next captured Mentz, and afterwards Franckfort. He was eager to proceed to Coblentz, that noted seat of the counter-revolutionists; but the Prussians and Austrians indicated a renewal of hostilities by garrisoning that town, and encamping in the adjacent country.

The conquest of the Austrian Netherlands formed 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

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city was in his hands on the 14th of November. That able general, having entered the Netherlands with forty thousand men, and with a formidable train of artillery, occupied five days in repeated engagements with the Austrian army, which, however, exceeded not twenty thousand. At length, on the 6th of November, a battle was fought at Gemappe, 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. After an obstinate conflict, the Austrians retired in the utmost disorder.

Dumouriez immediately advanced, and took possession of Mons, where the French were received as brethren. Tournay surrendered to a detachment, and Dumouriez advanced to Brussels, where, after an engagement between his van and the Austrian rear, he was received with acclamations. Ghent, Charleroi, Antwerp, Mechlin, and all the towns of the Austrian Netherlands, except Luxembourg, followed the example of the capital.

Encouraged by this success, the convention promulgated a decree which attracted the attention of every nation in Europe. It is in the following terms: "The national convention will grant fraternity and assistance to all those people who wish to procure liberty; and the executive power will send orders to the generals to give assistance to such people, and to defend citizens who have suffered, or are 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 Scheld (shut up by the treaty of Munster, in 1648) was projected and ordered, although that stipulation 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: Antwerp, they apprehended, might prove a dangerous rival to Amsterdam. The infraction of this agreement 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, even at this distance of time, partake of the sympathy which was then felt through all Europe.

We cannot be expected, in a professed compendium, to trace minutely and gradually the progress of the dispute between France and England. Without affixing any degree of credit to the report of the early accession of Great-Britain to the concert of princes and the treaty of Pilnitz, it is natural to believe that the ministry had long viewed with a jealous eye the progress of the French revolution toward a turbulent democracy.

The French nation, at first, seemed desirous of the good opinion of our court at this crisis; but the ruling power defied the displeasure of all foreign states; and the act against aliens, and other instances of suspicious or unfriendly conduct on the part of Great-Britain, excited such resentment among the leaders of the convention, that war was declared, on the 1st of February, 1793, against our sovereign, and his subservient friend the prince of Orange.

The subjugation of Holland was the next project of Dumouriez; and there seemed reason to apprehend that he would soon make an impression

on that country. The easy surrender of Breda and Gertruydenburg encouraged him to boast that he would terminate the contest by a speedy approach to Amsterdam; but certain events ensued, which effectually prevented the performance of his promise.

Miranda, who had besieged Maestricht, was attacked by prince Frederic of Brunswick, and defeated with considerable loss. A general engagement, soon after, took place at Neerwinden. The action continued with great obstinacy on both sides, for ten hours; the French were then 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 number, and perhaps by the more regular discipline, of their enemies.

Dumouriez was now suspected of treachery; and four commissioners were sent from Paris, with power to suspend and arrest all generals and military officers whom they should suspect, and bring them to the bar of the convention. These deputies proceeded to his head-quarters, and explained to him the object of their mission. After a conference of some hours, the general, finding that he could not persuade them to favor his intentions, ordered them to be conveyed to the Austrian camp at Tournay, as hostages for the safety of the royal family.

He found himself, however, in a great error with respect to the disposition of his troops. They had resented the affront, so imprudently offered to their general: but, when he began to explain to them his plan, and propose the restoration of royalty in the person of the prince, they forsook him; and he was obliged to fly with a few attendants, making his escape through a dreadful discharge of musquetry. He reached the Austrian camp in safety; but he only met with neglect from his new associates. His successor was Dampierre, who fell in the battle of Vicogne, in which the Austrian general Clairfait and the duke of York distinguished themselves by their courage and firmness. After forcing the camp of Famars, the allies formed the siege of Valenciennes, and reduced the town, but not without considerable difficulty and delay. Condé was also, taken; and the duke proceeded, with the English and Dutch, to attack the port and town of Dunkirk. The besiegers were extremely harassed by the gun-boats of the French; a successful *sortie* was made by the garrison; and, after several severe actions, the duke was compelled to raise the siege, and leave his numerous train of artillery.

The disaffection in the south of France was at this time productive of serious danger to the new republic. The formidable union of the cities of Marseilles, Lyons, and Toulon, seemed to threaten the dissolution of the existing authorities. A considerable army, however, marched against Lyons, and the city was closely besieged. The Marseillois, in the mean time, opened their gates on the approach of the republican host, and submitted: but the people of Toulon entered into a negotiation with lord Hood, who was then cruising in the Mediterranean; and he took possession both of the town and shipping, in the name of Louis XVII.

Among the victims of popular resentment who fell about this period, was general Custine, whose former services, whatever might have been his subsequent demerits, ought to have secured him more lenient treatment. The trial of the queen soon followed that of Custine. She had been removed from the Temple to a miserable apartment in the prison of the Conciergerie, where she remained till she was brought before the revolutionary tribunal. She was accused of treason against the state, and condemned to death. She heard the sanguinary sentence with dig-

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nity and resignation ; perhaps, indeed, it might have been considered by her less as a punishment than as a release. On the 16th of October she was conducted to a scaffold prepared in the Place de la Revolution, 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.

Brissot and his political friends had endeavoured to save the king's life ; but the furious zeal and malignity of Robespierre prevailed over the comparative timidity of his rival, whom he now resolved to ruin. Brissot was charged with having said and written, at the commencement of the revolution, that La 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 : the jury declared all the accused members to be accomplices in a conspiracy against the unity and indivisibility of the French republic ; and the tribunal condemned the whole number. Valazé, after he had heard his sentence, stabbed himself ; and the remaining twenty-one were put to death. Egalité, as the duke of Orleans called himself, was soon after brought to the block. He suffered death with great firmness, amidst the insults and reproaches of the populace. His baseness and cruelty, in promoting the ruin and voting for the death of his royal relative, deprived him of all claim to commiseration.

In the south of France, neither the exertions of the allies, nor the revolt of the Toulonese, were sufficient to produce the expected consequence of establishing a monarchical government. Toulon was subjected to a vigorous siege. The garrison, consisting of British, Spanish, and Neapolitan troops, beside the French royalists, made spirited sallies, which, however, could only retard, not prevent, the success of the conventional soldiery. At length the allies found a retreat expedient. They set fire to the French ships, arsenal, and store-houses ; but the precipitation with which the evacuation was effected, caused some of the ships to fall into the hands of the besiegers, 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 shore, and demanded the protection which had been promised to 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 to the British and Spanish vessels : 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 a faint description of the scene on shore, and it was scarcely less dreadful in the ships—loaded with the heterogeneous 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 recently deserted. Nothing could equal the horrors of the sight, except the still more appalling cries of distraction and agony that filled the air, for husbands, fathers, and children, left on shore.

The recovery of Toulon, and the reduction of Lyons, quelled the revolt in the south; and the decree of the convention for a levy *en masse* gave redoubled energy to the arms of France. In the mean time, the government, however nominally republican, was almost entirely vested in one man, the usurper Robespierre. 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 were rather 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, sister of the late unfortunate monarch, was inhumanly involved.

But, after the death of Danton, who was guillotined with Fabre d'Églantine, Chabot, and others, for not being meanly subservient to Robespierre, the fall of this tyrannical demagogue rapidly approached. A strong party was formed against him in the convention. Tallien moved the arrest of the ruffian and his creatures, and the decree passed with applause. The president then ordered one of the ushers of the hall to take the tyrant 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, who was one of their creatures, refused to receive them; and they were then led, rather in triumph than as prisoners, to the town-hall. 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 hall, 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 forsook them; and the deputies, who had been despatched for that purpose, boldly attacked them. 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 discharged a pistol in his mouth, which, however, failed of its effect, and only wounded him in the jaw. Le-Bas shot himself, 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 July, 1794, to the number of twenty-two, amidst the execrations of the spectators.

In the campaign of this year, the arms of the new republic were successful on every side against the allies. In Flanders, Jourdan gained the battle of Fleurus; and Charleroi, Ypres, Bruges, and Courtray, surrendered to the French; Ostend was evacuated; general Clairfait was defeated near Mons, which immediately surrendered; and the prince of Saxe-Coburg was compelled to retreat with precipitation. Thus the Netherlands, which had been in a great measure recovered by the Austrians, again fell under the French yoke. Landrecy, Quesnoi, Valenciennes, and Condé, were re-taken; and the French armies, pursuing their success, took Aix-la-Chapelle, defeated Clairfait near Juliers, and made themselves masters of Cologne and Bonne. Maestricht and Nimeguen were likewise taken.

The United Provinces began now to be seriously alarmed. The states of Friseland were the first to feel their danger; and, in October, these

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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 adopted; and such appeared to be the temper of the people, even at Amsterdam, that the government of Holland published a proclamation, prohibiting the presentation of any petition or memorial on public or political subjects, and all popular meetings.

The French made a feeble attempt to cross the Waal, and were repulsed with loss; but the frost soon commenced with unusual rigor, and opened a new road to the invaders, who, having marched over the frozen Maes, 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 confederates retreated before them, and endured great hardships from the severity of the weather and the want of necessaries. In January, 1795, 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 Nimeguen and Arnheim. The allies were defeated at all points; and, being utterly unprepared either for resistance or flight, they 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 retreat, till Utrecht, Rotterdam, and Dordrecht, surrendered. The utmost consternation now prevailed among the friends of the court. The princess of Orange, with the younger and female part of the family, escaped to England, which also afforded an asylum to the stadtholder, who crossed the sea in an open boat from Scheveling.

On the 20th of January, Pichegru entered Amsterdam in triumph, at the head of 5000 men, and was received by the inhabitants with the loudest acclamations. The whole of the United Provinces submitted to the French. The provisional representatives of the people met on the 27th, and the government assumed a democratic form.

In the mean time, the king of Prussia, who had recovered Mentz and performed other services, began to relax his efforts. The Prussian and Austrian forces, as well as their leaders, were on unfriendly 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 toward the Rhine, which they soon after passed. A negotiation followed, which ended in a treaty of peace, signed at Basle, on the 5th of April, 1795. His Prussian majesty thus abandoned the coalition, and meanly purchased peace by resigning to the French a part of the duchy of Cleves.

The Prussian negotiation was followed by a treaty between the French republic and Spain, in which country the arms of France had made a progress equally successful and rapid. Fontarabia had been taken, almost immediately, by a detachment from the French army: other strong towns were captured; 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 despatched by the court of Madrid for the adjustment of a treaty, which was accordingly signed at Basle, on the 22d of July.

About the middle of the year, died the son of the unfortunate Louis XVI. An unjust and close imprisonment hastened his dissolution. He

had always been an unhealthy child, and subject to a scrofulous complaint; a disorder in which confinement and inactivity are frequently fatal. Moved, perhaps, by this event, or influenced by the general sympathy of the people of France, the committee of public safety proposed the exchange of the princess, sister of the dauphin, for the deputies delivered up to Austria by the treachery of Dumouriez, and for the two ambassadors, Semonville and Maret, who had been seized by an Austrian corps. The emperor, after some hesitation, acceded to the proposal.

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 were in arms against the republic. 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 fort Penhievre; but soon after experienced a sad reverse;—the fort being surprised by the republicans, who killed or made prisoners the greater part of the emigrants and their associates. The count de Sombreuil, the bishop of Dol (with the clergymen who accompanied him), and most of the captives, were tried by a military tribunal, and put to death. In the spring of the ensuing year, the revolt in this part of France was quelled; and the chiefs of La Vendée (Charette and Stofflet) were shot.

In the year 1796, the rapid and signal victories of the republican troops, under the command of the celebrated Bonaparté, ended, in little more than a month, the war with the king of Sardinia. The battles of Monte-Lezino, Mondovi, and Monte-Notte, compelled that prince 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 15th of May. Bonaparté pursued his success; and, again defeating Beaulieu, the Austrian general, at the battle of Lodi, forced the shattered remains of the Austrian army to retire toward Mantua, pursued by a part of the republican force, while the rest entered Milan; and the French gained possession of the whole of Lombardy.

The army, under general Jourdan, gaining considerable advantages over the Austrians, advanced into the heart of the empire; while another army under Moreau, passed the Rhine at Strasbourg, took the fort of Kehl, and, penetrating through Bavaria, nearly to Ratisbon, endeavoured to form a junction with Jourdan. This attempt, however, did not succeed; both armies experienced a reverse of fortune, and were obliged to retreat till they re-crossed the Rhine. The situation of Moreau was highly critical: and his retreat is acknowledged to have been conducted with great military skill. The archduke Charles, who commanded the Austrian army, followed Moreau in his retreat, and invested 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 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. Bonaparté, however, soon returned to the charge; and, after a series of spirited actions, Wurmser 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 Alvinzy, to

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rescue the gallant Wurmser and his besieged army; but the battle of Arcole completely defeated their views, and Mantua was obliged to surrender.

The victories of Bonaparté 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 (when augmented) styled the Cisalpine republic.

After the taking of Mantua, the victorious general penetrated into the Tyrol, and directed his course toward the Austrian capital. The archduke Charles was opposed to him, but was unable to check his progress. The republican troops 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 Bonaparté; a short armistice was agreed to: and preliminaries of peace were signed at Leoben.

In the mean time, a tumult having taken place at Venice, in which many French soldiers were murdered, the army on its 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 by the refusal of the French to restore Mantua, they at length agreed to cede to him the city and a part of the territory of Venice, in compensation for Mantua. The treaty 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 territories in Italy. He received in return the city of Venice, with Istria and Dalmatia; the French were to possess the Ionian islands and a part of Albania.

During the negotiation, the disputes of two contending parties led to a new revolution in France. The convention had been dissolved in 1795; and an assembly of elders, and a council of 500, had been chosen with an executive directory. In 1797, the two councils drew the lots, which deprived one third of their members of their seats in the legislature; and, when the new deputies took their seats, it appeared that the anti-directory party had received a considerable accession of strength. The conduct of the directory was freely censured; and it was evident that an open rupture was approaching. Unfortunately for the party in opposition to the directory, the armies took part with the latter. The troops in Italy transmitted to the directory a violent address relative to these disputes, and its example was followed by the other armies of the republic. The leaders of opposition 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 interest. Their adversaries, however, resolved on a prompt and violent measure, which effectually decided the contest.

On the 4th of September, 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, seised Pichegru, the president, and ordered many of the most distinguished members to be arrested. Carnot and Barthelemi were implicated in the fate of their friends. The former took advantage of the tumult and fled; the latter calmly awaited the storm. Barthelemi, Pichegru, Ramel, and their obnoxious associates, were transported to Cayenne, whence the two former, and some others, 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, new schemes of ambition and conquest were projected, in order to give employment to the armies, and afford them an opportunity of enriching themselves by plunder. A tumult having arisen at Rome, in which a French general was killed, the troops subverted the government of that city, deposed the pope, and erected a republic. The French likewise found a pretext to invade Switzerland, which they endeavoured to subject to their arbitrary sway. Of these invasions the reader will find a farther account under the heads of Italy and Switzerland.

After the conclusion of peace with the emperor, the army became a burthen which it was found difficult to support: and, notwithstanding the two late expeditions, there still remained a great military force in a state of inactivity that might ultimately prove dangerous to the government. An immediate invasion of Great-Britain was therefore announced, and an army collected along the northern coast of France, to which was given the pompous title of the Army of England. Convinced, however, of the impracticability of such an invasion, the directory changed the project for another, likewise sufficiently absurd, which was an expedition to Egypt, and the ultimate object of which, it is believed, was to penetrate to the Indian Ocean, embark the troops, and, by a co-operation with the sultan Tippoo, endeavour to effect the overthrow of the British empire in the East. Bonaparté embarked with about 40,000 men, and sailed from Toulon to Malta, in the spring of the year 1798. In that island the French consul and other emissaries of the republic had already propagated a spirit of disaffection: and, when the general, on pretence of inhospitable treatment, had ordered an attack of the forts, the resistance was so spiritless, that the whole island was quickly subdued. Proceeding on his voyage, he arrived in safety at Alexandria, having escaped the British squadron which was detached in pursuit of him under the command of sir Horatio Nelson. The town was taken by assault, with the loss of between two and three hundred men: and the French then advanced to Cairo, which was defended by Morad with a considerable body of Mamelouks; but on the 23rd of July, it was attacked with success. The beys, however, attempted to rally, and collected a formidable force in the neighbourhood of Cairo; but the battle of the Pyramids 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 Mamelouks were slain, and four hundred camels with their baggage, and fifty pieces of cannon, were taken, with a loss comparatively small on the part of the French.

The conquest of Lower Egypt appeared to be complete; but, on the 1st of August, the expedition received a terrible blow in the defeat and destruction of the fleet, of which an account has been given in our historical summary of the affairs of England. The French land-force, however, remained in possession of Egypt; and, to secure his conquest, Bonaparté advanced into Syria, where, after gaining some ad-

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vantages, he received a decisive check before Acre: The English squadron, under sir Sidney Smith, intercepted a flotilla which was bringing his battering-artillery and ammunition from Egypt; and, sir Sidney acting in concert with the Turks, he was repulsed in every assault, and obliged to raise the siege, and retreat to Egypt with the shattered remains of his army. He soon after took an opportunity of returning to France, where, as we shall presently see, he became the author of a new and extraordinary revolution.

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 Porte and with England, and gave orders for a large army 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 of his views, and receiving no satisfactory answer, sent orders to general Jourdan, in the spring of the year 1799, to pass the Rhine, with the avowed intention of forcing the diet of Ratisbon to declare against the march of the Russian troops. About the same time, Bernadotte, at the head of an army of observation, approached Philipsburg, and summoned that fortress to surrender, while general Ney enforced the submission of Mannheim.

The cabinet of Vienna being now certain of the aid of Russia, the Austrian army took the field, under the command of the archduke Charles. Fortune, at first, appeared to declare in favor of the French. A body of troops of that nation, advancing through Schaffhausen toward Suabia, were opposed by a detachment of Austrians, whom they defeated. They were also successful for a short time in Italy. Their troops occupied the whole of Tuscany; and the king of Sardinia was reduced to the necessity of 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 Sicily.

But, soon after the commencement of hostilities with Austria, the French arms experienced a reverse of fortune. On the 25th of March, Jourdan attacked the Austrians near Stockach, but was obliged to retire in disorder; and, on the 26th, general Kray prevailed over the French on the Adige near Verona, and again defeated them on the 30th. Marshal Souvoroff arrived in April with the first column of the Russian troops; and the success of the allies became rapid and uninterrupted. On the 24th, the Austrians and Russians passed the Oglio, and drove the French before them. They then crossed the Adda, and, on the 27th, defeated Moreau at Cassano: and so decisive was the victory, that Milan opened its gates to the conquerors. In Piedmont, the French, notwithstanding the efforts of Moreau, Macdonald, and Joubert, beheld themselves successively deprived of all their strong-holds. From Mantua they were also driven, after a short siege for so strong a town; and such was their ill success in the campaign, that they were obliged to abandon the whole of Italy, except Genoa, and a small portion of the adjoining territory. On the 25th of August a desperate battle was fought between the French and the Austrians and Russians at Novi, in which 8000 of the French were killed or wounded; 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 favorable to the allies; the French general being obliged to abandon Zurich, which was immediately occupied by the Austrian troops under Hotze.

Italy being now in a great measure rescued from the power of the French, it was resolved that Souvoroff should proceed with his army into 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 directors 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. Massena, who commanded the republican army in that country, displayed great military genius, and evinced uncommon abilities in all his enterprises. Knowing that, if Souvoroff should effect 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, repeatedly defeated the Austrian and Russian armies—many thousands being killed or made prisoners.

Sovoroff consequently, 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 severe loss.

On the 13th of October, Bonaparté, 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 that revolutionary change which had probably been projected by the abbé Sieyès, and which the popularity and enterprising spirit of Bonaparté enabled him to carry into execution.

The first step toward this revolution was taken by the council of ancients, which ordained the removal of the legislative body to St. Cloud, and commissioned Bonaparté to superintend the execution of this decree, investing him with the command of all the troops in Paris and its environs. That artful and politic general soon after appeared at the bar, with several officers of rank, and addressed the members in a short speech, in which he represented that the republic was perishing, and they knew it, but that their new decree 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 applause; and the assembly broke up with shouts of "Live the republic!"

At St. Cloud, on the 10th of November, the council of 500 appointed a committee of seven members, 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 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

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renown, the distinguished marks of confidence shown to 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 depositories." While some of the representatives were urging the propriety of choosing another director in the room of Barras, Bonaparté entered the hall, attended by some officers and grenadiers, and walked up toward the president. A violent agitation ensued among the members, some of whom rushed precipitately from their seats, and endeavoured to seize him: others cried—"Outlaw him!" and one attempted to stab him, but the blow was warded off by a grenadier. The tumult increased; all the members quitted their seats;—the president, Lucien Bonaparté, 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 Bonaparté orders the hall to be cleared." The arbitrary order was immediately carried into effect.

The sittings were resumed in the evening, and Lucien took the chair. A decree passed, abolishing the directory, and appointing a consular government of three, namely, Sieyès, Bonaparté, and Roger Ducos, who all appeared, and took the oath to be faithful to the republic. 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 other assembly. They likewise voted the suppression of the directory and the appointment of a consular executive of three persons. By the same decrees, sixty-one members were expelled from the legislative body; and thus was the national representation, with the boasted constitution, 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 code, the appearance of a representative government was authorised; but the whole power of the state was substantially vested in the first consul, Bonaparté, who commenced his administration by making proposals of peace to Great-Britain. He made a similar application to the court of Vienna; but, his overtures 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 invaders into the territory of Genoa. In the spring of the year 1800, 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. 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 had perished, and his army was reduced to only 8,000 men. That city was given up to the Austrians on the 5th of June.

In the mean time Bonaparté, having assembled an army at Dijon, passed the mountains of St. Gothard and St. Bernard, and, surmounting apparently insuperable obstacles, entered Italy, where he soon made himself master of Milan, Pavia, Piacenza, Cremona, and the whole course of the Po. Melas appears to have been so confident of the impracticability of the route which the French had taken, that he took no measures to oppose the passage of Bonaparté till it was too late. At length

he despatched Otto with thirty battalions, to stop the progress of the French army, which was marching toward Piedmont; but that general was defeated at Casteggio, with great loss. This victory was a prelude to the battle of Marengo, which fixed the fate of Italy. Melas, having assembled the whole of his force, marched to meet his enemy, and took post in the village of Marengo. In the battle which ensued, victory seemed at first to have declared for the Austrians. The French centre was compelled to retreat with great slaughter; but the body of reserve, under Desaix, impetuously charging the Austrians, who were thrown into some confusion by the eagerness of pursuit, turned the fortune of the day, and gave the French a complete victory. About 10,000 of the vanquished were killed, wounded, or captured; and, in all probability, the French suffered nearly in the same proportion. So important was the battle in its consequences, that the next day Melas, finding his situation no longer tenable, proposed an armistice, which was accepted by Bonaparté, and by which Genoa was immediately surrendered to the French, 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, Brisach, 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 commander of the emperor's 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 the greater part of Bavaria, he detached Lecourbe toward the Tyrol to seize the Voralberg and the Grison territory, 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 of peace, a truce was at length concluded for the armies in Germany.

In the negotiations at Paris, the court of Vienna intimated that it was bound in honor to treat only in concert with Great-Britain. The first consul signified his consent that the negotiation 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. Bonaparté now refused to negotiate with England, and the emperor declared that he would not ratify the preliminaries which had been signed by his envoy.

The rupture of the negotiation was followed by that of the armistice in Germany, which had been renewed by the emperor, at the expense of surrendering Ulm, Ingolstadt, and Philippsburg, into the hands of the French, as a pledge of his sincere desire of peace. The campaign then recommenced; and, in the beginning of December, the Austrians were defeated by Moreau at Hohenlinden: the archduke Charles was also vanquished, and the emperor was convinced that he had no resource but in a peace. Negotiations were opened at Luneville, where a treaty was signed on the 3d of February, 1801. The cession of the Belgic territory to France, as stipulated by the treaty of Campo Formio, was confirmed; the whole country on the left side of the Rhine was likewise given up to France; the boundaries of the Cisalpine or Italian

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republic were enlarged; and the dukes of Tuscany and Modena were compelled to relinquish 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 Great-Britain, and the causes of its rupture, a concise account has 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, Bonaparté fitted out a great expedition for St. Domingo, to restore, as he said, the French colonies to tranquillity and order. In the fleet, and the transports which accompanied it, he embarked an army of 25,000 men, the flower of the French soldiery, and completely equipped. The famous negro chief, Toussaint l'Ouverture, was 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 a dungeon. The renewal 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, were at length entirely driven out of the island.

The unbounded ambition of Bonaparté now began to display itself in its true colors. He had assumed the title of president of the Italian republic, with the same unlimited authority which he exercised in France; and, not content with holding the title and power of first consul, according to the constitution which 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 imperial throne to which he aspired.

In the beginning of the year 1804, a conspiracy, it appears, was formed against him, in which 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 Bonaparté, 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 Bonaparté. Pichegru was found dead in his bed before his trial, having fallen, as was pretended, by his own hands; Georges and ten others suffered death by the guillotine; and Moreau, who was condemned to two years' imprisonment, was permitted by the despot to take his departure for America.

In consequence of this conspiracy, the abject and venal senate of Bonaparté, 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* would thus become permanently established, and secure from the attacks of all its enemies. With this request he was graciously pleased, for the public good, to comply; and he accordingly assumed the title of *Emperor of the French*. 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, were gratified with the high-sounding titles of arch-chancellor and arch-treasurer of the empire.

About the same time, likewise, Bonaparté contrived to change the

constitution of the Italian republic, transforming it into a kingdom, and crowning himself at Milan; and, near the close of the year, he obliged the pope to undertake a journey to Paris, and was crowned by him emperor of the French.

The principal hostilities that took place between France and England for some time after the rupture of the peace of Amiens, were confined to the preparations for the threatened invasion of England by the Boulogne flotilla on the part of the former, and the defensive efforts of the latter to make a victorious resistance in case of any such attempt. On the continent, the French over-ran and took possession of the territory of Hanover, almost without resistance, from the great superiority of their land-force. But at length the cabinet of England succeeded in its endeavours to engage Austria to make new exertions against the formidable power of France: Russia also engaged to enter into the contest.

The first act of hostility on the part of Austria (and an injudicious one it appears to have been) was a peremptory order to the elector of Bavaria, to join the Austrian army with all his forces. The elector requested to be permitted to remain neuter, which being refused him, he with his whole court withdrew to Wurtzburg, and the Austrians entered Munich without opposition; thus forcing, as it were, Bavaria to become the ally of France.

Bonaparté now took the field with alacrity. Bernadotte had previously with his corps reached Wurtzburg; and, the other French corps rapidly advancing, Mack, the Austrian general, found himself in such a position at Ulm, that on the 17th of October he capitulated with his whole army. The first division of the Russians had in the mean time arrived on the banks of the Inn; but, after their junction with the Austrians, the whole force did not exceed 75,000 men, while the French army advancing against them nearly amounted to 100,000. The allies therefore determined to retire, in order to effect a junction with the second Russian division under general Buxhofden; and, crossing the Danube, left Vienna to the French. Bonaparté entered that city, concealing his joy under the appearance of moderation, and declaring that he would treat the inhabitants with lenity and kindness. Proceeding against the combined troops, he engaged them, on the 2d of December, at Austerlitz in Moravia. He concentrated his great force, while they inconsiderately extended their line, so as to weaken their efforts. Five of their columns, acting without sufficient concert, involved themselves in great danger, while the centre, posted on an eminence, received such shocks as dislodged and defeated it. The French, at length, were completely victorious. The loss of the Russians, who were the principal sufferers, was said by the enemy to have amounted to 22,000 killed and wounded, and 20,000 prisoners; but an official report published at Petersburg asserted that the entire loss in the campaign, on the part of the Russians, did not amount to more than 17,000 men. One hundred pieces of cannon and 45 standards fell into the hands of the enemy. Two days after the engagement, an interview took place at the French advanced posts, between Bonaparté and the emperor of Austria: an armistice was adjusted, which was followed by a regular negotiation; and a treaty was signed at Presburg on the 25th of December. By this treaty, of which Bonaparté may be said to have dictated the terms, the emperor was deprived of the Venetian territory, the Tyrol, and the Voralberg, beside being obliged to make various cessions to the kings of Bavaria and Wurtemberg.

The peace of Presburg did not restore complete tranquillity to Europe.

Though the emperor concluded peace up to their estates. A Russian Dalmatian frontier ceded by parts insisted deliver it to be furnished with a many; and the own country; In the mean territory of Hanover been required. But he soon France, Bonn Hanover to it had taken possession temptuous, and had once made of Saxony to assist with a parté rendered the blow which three divisions who took a station Schleitz, a confederated. The to the French 14th of October received a military king's military rage and fire 10,000 captured Prussians and stricken by the conquer took possession army, made in the hands. The advance length crossing concerning the Russian general river. Bor the Narew fought the victory was c February, obstinately was, for s of the French and, whom the progress Great

Though the emperor Alexander had withdrawn his troops, he had not concluded peace with the French. The Russian forces were still kept up to their establishment, or rather indeed considerably increased by new levies. A Russian force in the Mediterranean had suddenly attacked a Dalmatian fortress, which by the treaty of Presburg was part of the territory ceded by Austria to France, and gained possession of it. Bonaparte insisted that the Austrians should retake it from the Russians, and deliver it to him as had been stipulated. By this dispute he was furnished with a specious pretext for not withdrawing his troops from Germany; and the Austrian prisoners, who had not already returned to their own country, were detained.

In the mean time, the king of Prussia, having agreed to accept the territory of Hanover, in compensation for certain sacrifices which he had been required to make, incurred the resentment and hostility of England. But he soon after found, that, in the negotiations between England and France, Bonaparte did not seem unwilling to permit the restoration of Hanover to its former sovereign, though, at his desire, Prussian troops had taken possession of it. Incensed at treatment that appeared so contemptuous, and relying too much on the military character which Prussia had once maintained in Europe, the king prepared for war. The elector of Saxony took part in the contest as his ally, and Russia consented to assist with a large force. But the rapidity of the movements of Bonaparte rendered it impossible for the Russians to come up in time to avert the blow which he meditated against Prussia. The French army, in three divisions, marched in the autumn of 1806 to meet the Prussians, who took a strong position to the north of Frankfort on the Maine. At Schleitz, a conflict arose between the armies, and the Prussians were defeated. The battle of Saalfeld followed, which was also advantageous to the French. At Auerstadt, the victory which they obtained, on the 14th of October, was much more important. The duke of Brunawick received a mortal wound; and his place was not properly supplied by the king's military inexperience; nor did the troops display their usual courage and firmness. About 20,000 men were killed or wounded, and 10,000 captured. The battle of Jena was also very disastrous to the Prussians and their allies. The garrisons of the chief fortresses, panic-stricken by these victories, if not influenced by treachery, submitted to the conquerors, almost as soon as they were summoned. The French took possession of the capital; and the king, with a small remnant of his army, made his escape into East-Prussia, the rest of his dominions being in the hands of the enemy.

The advanced guard of the Russians under general Beningsen had at length crossed the Vistula. Their reconnoitring parties however soon ascertaining the great superiority and rapid march of the enemy, the Russian general thought it most prudent speedily to retire and re-cross the river. Bonaparte, again putting himself at the head of his army, crossed the Narew, and overtook the enemy. On the 26th of December was fought the destructive but indecisive battle of Pultusk, in which the victory was claimed by both sides; and which was followed, on the 8th of February, 1807, by the sanguinary conflict of Eylau, one of the most obstinately-contested battles that have been fought in modern times. It was, for some time, favorable to the Russians; but the superior number of the French enabled them to prevent the triumph of their adversaries; and, when the Prussians took part in the engagement, they merely checked the progress of the foe.

Great exertions were now made on both sides to recruit the armies

wasted by the havoc of this sanguinary contest. The emperor Alexander and the grand-duke Constantine arrived with a great reinforcement, and the efforts of Napoleon to repair his loss, and accumulate a force fully equal to the great struggle which still remained, were unremitting. The French laid siege to Dantzic, which was taken on the 27th of May; and, on the 14th of June, after a variety of manœuvres and actions of minor importance, was fought the great and decisive battle of Friedland. It was at first partial; and the Russians seemed to have a prospect of success; but, when it became general, the determined spirit of the French enabled them to prevail. Of their number, about 7000 were killed or wounded, while above 12,000 suffered in the vanquished army. Weary of the contest, Alexander requested an armistice. An interview ensued between him and his conqueror, on a raft which floated at an equal distance from each bank of the Niemen; and, after a negotiation at Tilsit, peace was concluded on the 7th of July. The two potentates then separated with mutual expressions of attachment, after exchanging the decorations of their respective orders. On the same day peace was restored between France and Prussia.

By this treaty the king was deprived of extensive and valuable territories, some of which were incorporated with a new kingdom erected by Bonaparté in favor of his brother Jerome, and styled the kingdom of Westphalia. Warsaw was declared a duchy, and given to the elector of Saxony, who at the same time received the title of king. Bonaparté had also lately made one brother king of Holland, and another king of Naples; and Alexander consented to admit these titles. He also explicitly acknowledged the confederation of the Rhine. For these concessions he was rewarded with the donation of a part of Poland, wrested from Prussia.

In the beginning of the year 1808, the designs of Bonaparté upon Spain began to be developed, for a brief account of which we refer the reader to our historical summary of the affairs of that country.

When the Spaniards had opposed his invasion with determined resistance, and in some cases with unexpected success, the Austrian emperor, who had been for a considerable time dissatisfied with France, and intent on secretly increasing his forces and military preparations, began to think that an opportunity had now presented itself to engage in another contest for independence, while the forces of his enemy seemed to be fully employed on the other side of the Pyrenees. In April, 1809, therefore, he published a hostile proclamation, and took the field against the king of Bavaria, who, in consequence of this invasion, quitted his capital. Bonaparté, having put in motion several divisions of his army with his usual celerity, made his appearance on the banks of the Danube. The battles of Abensberg, Landshut, Eckmuhl, and Ratisbon, soon followed; and, in the course of a week, the Austrians lost nearly 30,000 men by captivity, and eighty pieces of cannon.

On the 10th of May, Bonaparté appeared before Vienna, of the suburbs of which he immediately became master; but the city itself made some resistance. The emperor, before the French invested the city, had left his capital, and removed into Moravia. The army of the archduke Charles, having attempted too late to relieve the capital, posted itself on the other side of the Danube in array of battle. The ruler of France, being equally ready for action, resolved to attack that commander in his position. This attempt, which was made on the 21st of May, and was called the battle of Aspern or Essling, failed; and, in this dreadful battle, 30,000 of the French (it has been asserted) were killed, wounded or cap-

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tured. Five of their generals were killed, and eight were wounded, one of whom, marshal Lasnes, soon after died. The Austrians likewise sustained great loss, 20,000 of their number being either deprived of life, or personally injured in different degrees.

After this severe repulse, Bonaparté remained inactive and cautious till the beginning of July, repairing the damage which his bridges and works from time to time suffered by the river. He was, however, incessantly employed in making the most formidable preparations, not only to protect himself against an attack from the archduke, but also to enable himself to resume offensive operations, in such a manner as might ensure success. In 14 days he raised a bridge of six arches, so broad, that three carriages could pass abreast over a very rapid river. A second bridge, eight feet broad, was constructed for infantry: there was also a bridge of boats. Each bridge was covered and protected by a *tete-de-pont* 160 fathoms long. Yet these bridges and works were only intended as a feint; for it was not the intention of Bonaparté to pass where he knew the enemy to be strongest and fully prepared. In the night, he constructed several bridges at a different part of the river; one bridge of a single piece, 80 fathoms long, was fixed in less than five minutes: three others, of boats and rafts, were also thrown over the stream; and, in the morning, the whole French army had crossed, and stood in order of battle at the extremity of the left flank of the Austrians. The archduke now found himself completely out-generaled, and all his works rendered useless. He was therefore compelled to abandon his positions, and fight the French on the ground chosen by themselves. On the 6th, at day-break, the archduke incautiously weakening his wings, Bonaparté made a general and powerful attack on the centre, and gained a complete victory near Wagram. This battle was considered as so decisive, that an armistice was concluded on the 12th of July; but the definitive treaty of peace was not signed and ratified before the middle of October. By this treaty Austria ceded Salzburg, with the Tyrol, to Bavaria; Trieste and Fiume to France; Western Galitzia, with the city of Cracow, to Saxony; and a large portion of Eastern Galitzia, to Russia.

Bonaparté, on his return to Paris, by a formal act of separation, repudiated his empress Josephine, alleging, as his sole motive, his desire to obtain an heir for the empire. He seemed for some time to hesitate in choosing her successor, but at length fixed his choice on the arch-duchess of Austria, Maria Louisa, whom he espoused with great pomp on the 1st of April, 1810. It could not have been readily supposed that the pride of the Austrian family, or a dignified sense of honor, would have submitted to this arrogant demand, advanced by a base adventurer: but Francis was so humbled by the ill success of the war, that he had not the spirit to oppose the requisition; and his daughter seemed to exult in the idea of becoming empress of France. By this marriage, Napoleon hoped to become the progenitor of a race of French princes, and to form a flourishing and permanent dynasty; and his power seemed then to be so firmly established, that his friends and admirers considered his expectations as not altogether improbable.

As his external influence was exercised with the most odious arrogance, his internal government was shamefully tyrannical and oppressive. He domineered over persons of all ranks; employed spies to take advantage of the freedom of social intercourse; imprisoned, or otherwise ill-treated, all who dared to speak freely of his government; imposed taxes at his pleasure, or (which was the same thing) by the medium of the servile assemblies that formed a part of his despotic system; and,

by the most unjustifiable conscription, dragged the youth of his empire into the wars which arose from his insatiable and sanguinary ambition. More inhuman than Alaric the Goth, he has been more properly compared with Attila the Hun; and his name will be as odious to posterity as that of Louis XI., the most selfish and unfeeling of all the tyrants of France.

The peace with Austria left Napoleon contending only with Great-Britain, and with the Spanish and Portuguese patriots. Having lost his influence in Portugal, he ordered Massena, in 1810, to re-conquer that kingdom. His choice of a general appeared to be judicious; but that commander was opposed by an officer of superior ability. The French reduced Almeida, rather in consequence of an accident which befell the garrison, than by the vigor of their operations; and they then advanced to the capture of Coimbra, hoping to complete their success by the speedy seizure of Lisbon. But, at Busaco, they felt the severe effects of the courage and discipline of the allies; for even the Portuguese are said to have exhibited, on that occasion, a degree of warlike energy, nearly equal to that which the British troops displayed. Satisfied with having given this repulse to the enemy, lord Wellington took the most judicious precautions for preventing the conquest of the country; while Massena, unwilling to assault his rival in a position which was remarkably strong, passed a long interval in a state of inactivity, suffering many inconveniences and privations, and losing a multitude of his men. In Spain, the French were more successful. They over-ran the provinces of Andalusia and Granada, kept possession of the two Castiles, and other considerable portions of the kingdom, and menaced the whole with subjugation. The retreat of Massena, in the following year, baffled Napoleon's hopes of driving the English from Portugal; and another Spanish campaign was not so fortunate as he expected it to prove: yet he resolved to persist in the iniquitous scheme of usurpation. Even while he was involved by his furious ambition in a war with Russia, he did not entirely neglect the promotion of his interest in Spain.

The rupture, between Napoleon and Alexander, arose from the domineering arrogance of the former, who, finding that the northern emperor was inclined to renew a friendly intercourse with Great-Britain, and trusting to the probability of making a strong impression upon the territories even of that powerful prince, resolved to employ a great army in this rash enterprise. Of the war which ensued, we have stated the most remarkable occurrences in our sketch of the history of Russia; but we may here observe, that some fierce conflicts, in the advance of the French toward the capital of Lithuania, convinced them of the cool and steady courage of their new enemies, who vigorously opposed a very superior force. The vanity and arrogance of the invaders prompted them to stigmatise the Russians as barbarians, unfit to contend with the polished and scientific warriors who had been bred in the school of the illustrious Napoleon: but the charge was vague and unsupported, unless we attribute the voluntary burning of Smolensk and Moscow to a tincture of ferocity and barbarism.

In the progress of the campaign, although the enemy seemed to have a prospect of signal success, the Russians in general, and the nobles in particular, did not despair. If Petersburg had fallen when Moscow was taken, and if great defeats had thinned the number of the patriots, they would still have trusted to the population and spirit of the empire; and, if the French had even dared to pass the winter in Russia, the conquest of the country would not necessarily have followed.

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The despotism to which Napoleon had subjected the French, and the oppression by which they were justly punished for having submitted to a man of his character and complexion, enabled him to levy another great army, after he had outraged the laws of God and man by consigning so many myriads of his fellow-creatures to a premature death. In the mean time, he did not neglect the prosecution of his ambitious views in Spain: but even the fifth campaign in that kingdom did not put his brother in full possession of the sovereignty. Marmont, the French general, was not particularly distinguished by skill, activity, or circumspection. He suffered two of the chief fortresses to be taken by the confederates, almost within view of an army which considerably exceeded their number: he was defeated in a general engagement; and, though some retrograde movements on the part of his adversaries marked the close of the campaign, he did not profit by their temporary depression.

The dreadful loss sustained in Russia did not allay the tyrant's thirst of blood, or inspire him with sentiments of moderation and forbearance. Enraged at the new league which had been formed against him, he breathed vengeance against all his enemies, particularly against the king of Prussia, who had so long been his subservient vassal, and whom he hoped to humble so effectually, that he should no more be able to rise. In the spring of 1813, he took the field with above 100,000 men, and presented himself before the allies, to whom the Austrians had not yet added their strength. On the plain of Lutzen, which had been rendered memorable by the fall of Gustavus Adolphus, the heroic defender of the liberties of Germany, he obstinately aimed at the subjugation of the empire; for he was not yet so far humbled as to attend only to defensive measures, or to follow the dictates of humanity. The battle which ensued was extremely sanguinary. His centre, to which he usually gave the greatest strength, was thrown into disorder by the vigorous efforts of his adversaries; but it was enabled to escape defeat by the arrival of a strong corps from the left. It cannot perhaps be affirmed with truth, that either army proved victorious on this occasion, though each party pretended to be master of the field. In the neighbourhood of Bautzen, a more tremendous conflict occurred. It extended over such a considerable space, that it seemed rather to be a variety of simultaneous actions than one battle. Many posts were the objects of spirited contest; they were alternately gained and lost; and, at the close of the day, success was undecided. A Russian division retreated to avoid ruin, and serious havoc was made among the Prussians; but the French sustained a far greater loss than their opponents. A partial engagement followed; the effect of which, added to the former losses, inclined the contending potentates to agree to a suspension of hostilities.

The augmentation of military strength was the chief object which occupied the attention of both parties during the armistice. Bonaparte repaired his losses by ordering an additional conscription, to supply the place of those troops which were sent without delay from France: and, while Alexander and the Prussian monarch were devising the means of more vigorous hostility, the Austrian prince was persuaded to enter into the confederacy. Napoleon would not easily believe that his father-in-law was disposed to desert his interest, which he thought he had sufficiently secured by the ostensible union of the two families: but he deceived himself by his implicit confidence in the continued subserviency of Francis, and was confounded at the report of the warlike determination of that prince.

The great preparations of Austria, and the zeal which seemed to ani-

mate the emperor and his court, and to pervade the military ranks, menaced the French with the extinction of their arbitrary influence over the continent. The storm, so long suspended, was gathering around the tyrant, and threatened to overwhelm him. He faced it, however, with spirit, and resolved not to fall, or to lose his power, without diffusing carnage and misery to a wide extent. He still found a multitude of abject slaves ready to march under his banners, and to perpetrate every outrage, under the idle pretence of acquiring high fame and military glory. When he re-opened the campaign, he posted himself in the heart of Saxony, oppressing, with heavy exactions and cruel injuries, the subjects of a prince whom he called his friend and confederate. He had a great disposable force; but the allies, by the addition of the Austrian army, had obtained the advantage of numerical superiority. Their troops, beside detachments, formed three large armies; one commanded by the prince of Schwartzberg (who had in the preceding year conducted an auxiliary force into Russia under the orders of Napoleon); the second by the celebrated field-marshal Blucher; and the third by Bernadotte, the crown-prince of Sweden. Blucher was first attacked in Silesia, and obliged to retreat with loss; but he retrieved his credit by a considerable victory, by which he rescued that province from hostile incursions. The crown-prince particularly attended to the defence of Brandenburg; but it was chiefly by the efforts of the Prussians, that he triumphed at Gross-Beren. When Napoleon had fallen back to Dresden, which he had strengthened with additional works, a fierce attack was made upon that station; but it was too defensible to be taken by a *coup de main*. In an engagement near that city, general Moreau, who had been gladly received into the service of the allied princes, and whose zeal in the cause was apparently equal to that which they felt, was so miserably shattered by a cannon-ball, that he soon after died.

As the grand army, after the failure at Dresden, retreated into Bohemia, for the supply of its physical wants, the French were encouraged to pursue the Austrian commander by the hope of an easy victory. He was not displeased at the incautious eagerness of Vandamme, because it furnished him with an opportunity of chastising that general, whose division he nearly ruined in the battle of Culm. It was for some days believed by the French, that the vanquished commander had lost his life: but he merely lost his military reputation, and was captured amidst the disorder into which his followers were thrown.

Since the battle of Marengo, Napoleon had not at any time been in such a dangerous predicament as that in which he now stood. The time seemed to approach, when his ruin would be effected by the multitude of his enemies. He endeavoured to over-awe them by menacing movements; but he merely enforced a temporary retrogradation.

The victory obtained at Dennewitz by the Prussians and Swedes, and other advantages, induced the allied princes, who attended the grand army in Bohemia, to relinquish their cautious system, and assume the boldest attitude of offensive warfare. This determination was more particularly agreeable to the resolute spirit of Blucher, who hastened to the banks of the Elbe, passed it with little difficulty, and advanced toward Leipsic, where the French had taken some strong positions. The two other armies directed their march to the environs of that city; and fierce attacks were made upon various posts, with dreadful loss on both sides. The imperfect success which attended the operations of the first day, served only to stimulate the allies to redoubled vigor; and a renewal of assault effected

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the dislodgement of their adversaries from the circumjacent positions. Yet the city was retained, while the tyrant deliberated with his chief officers on the means of escape. He found an opening for that purpose; and, when he had retired with a part of his force, a bridge was blown up by his order to check the rapidity of the pursuit. Beside his recent loss, about 30,000 of his men were deprived of life, wounded or captured. He still had the means of repelling the Bavarians, who attacked him near the Rhine; and, hastening to his capital, he seemed to forget his disgrace amidst the acclamations of a deluded and despicable populace. Holland and the kingdom of Westphalia were now rescued from his grasp; and France, which he fondly deemed a sacred territory, was menaced with the intrusion of exasperated enemies. In Spain, likewise, the campaign was highly unfavorable to his arms. His formidable adversary, the duke of Wellington, drove the French into Navarre; and, having obtained a signal triumph at Vittoria, pursued the fugitives into their own confines. This invasion galled the pride and inflamed the resentment of marshal Soult, whose redoubled efforts, however, could not prevent the allies from taking up their winter-quarters on the French side of the Pyrenees.

Even the severity of the season did not present any serious obstacles to the progress of the powerful armies which had expelled the tyrant from Germany. As the princes were of opinion that delay would be injurious to their cause, the troops were ordered, at the commencement of the year 1814, to cross the Rhine, and to prosecute their march without the investment of fortresses. To meet the danger of invasion, Napoleon made such preparations as the time allowed; but he had so drained the country in the two last campaigns, that he could not procure a force sufficient for the purposes of defence. Scorning, however, the apparent meanness of dejection, he boasted of his ample resources, and threatened the daring foe with a speedy expulsion. He was unable to execute his menaces; yet he displayed great remains of spirit, and alternately checked the two advancing armies. A fierce conflict occurred at Brienne, in which he gained the advantage. A more general action took place near Chaumetil, where success long remained equally balanced: but the French centre and wings were ultimately forced, after the fall of a great number of men. Several towns near the Seine and Marne were soon after taken; and each of the allied armies made such approaches as menaced the proud capital of the great empire with subjugation and disgrace.

Of the battles which attended the progress of the confederates, the most remarkable seem to have been those of Vauchamp, Laon, and Fere-Champenoise. In the first, Blucher was the acting commander. After an engagement at Mont-mirail, which was followed by a pursuit of the retiring Prussians and their northern associates, Napoleon employed the bulk of his cavalry in the most vigorous assaults upon the compact infantry of the field-marshal; and the French, on this occasion, were at first so successful, as to reduce their adversaries to the verge of ruin. Blucher's danger was extreme; and the hope of extrication seemed visionary. During the retreat, his men were attacked in every direction but one; for they were only not surrounded: yet they escaped by their extraordinary exertions and the skill of their general. This was considered as a triumph by the French, whose leader also made a considerable impression upon the chief army of his opponents, and enforced a temporary retrogradation.

A contest for the possession of Soissons having terminated in the retreat

of Blucher to Laon, Napoleon was encouraged to attack this position, even though his force was inferior to that of the Prussian general. For a whole day he persisted in a repetition of assaults, but without the desired effect; for the greater part of his army retreated after a serious loss. The rest hazarded a new attack on the following day, and did not desist before the danger of being overwhelmed became so dreadfully urgent, that the desire of escape banished all thoughts of victory.

After some intermediate actions, and the failure of a negotiation in which honorable terms were offered to the tyrant, who would not however relinquish his territorial usurpations, the invaders, by that forwardness which seemed to him to proceed from a want of circumspection, tempted him to digress from the object of immediate defence, and to move to a considerable distance, in the hope of inducing the chief army to fall back toward the Rhine. Instead of taking only that part of his army which most commanders would have deemed sufficient for such a manoeuvre, "he pushed his object so far (says sir Charles Stewart) by the passage of the Aube with his whole army near Vitry, as to leave himself completely open to that bold and magnificent decision which was immediately adopted."

The prince of Schwartzenberg now resolved to form such a concert with Blucher as might enable each to assist the other with facility; and both generals were ready to advance to the completion of the grand object of a protracted war. To mask this movement, the march of the commander in chief was first made to Vitry, where the Russian emperor also arrived with his guard, encouraging the troops by his patient and cheerful submission to the rules of war and the fatigues of the service. Having adjusted the desired communication, the general formed the whole force into four divisions, and directed his course to Fere-Champénoise. A hostile corps, not suspecting that any enemies were so near, incurred the risque of being surrounded. Not only the infantry, but also the cuirassiers, were attacked by the Russian light cavalry, and harassed into a precipitate retreat, in which they suffered great loss. Another body, nearly amounting to 5000, likewise approached, and, after a short but gallant resistance, submitted to captivity. The subsequent interruptions of the march were of little moment; and, on the 30th of March, the army appeared before the entrenchments and the gates of Paris. It was declared, in a moderate and judicious proclamation, that the object of the march was to effect a sincere and permanent reconciliation with France; that no hope of terminating the misfortunes of the country could be entertained while there existed, in the very power of the government which oppressed the people, an insurmountable obstacle to peace; that the allied sovereigns recommended the organisation of such a salutary authority in France, as might promote and cement the union of all other nations with that power; and that it was incumbent on the Parisians to accelerate the peace of the world, by making such political arrangements as the crisis required.

As this address did not produce submission or acquiescence, preparations were made for an assault. The national guard, assembled for the defence of the city, amounted to about 30,000 men, under Hulin, the governor; while general Compans commanded 8000 regulars, who were reinforced by the few troops which had fled with Marmont from Fere-Champénoise. An eminence at Bell-ville, and other heights, formed a station for the right wing: the centre stood behind the canal of L'Ourque, having the benefit of some well-furnished redoubts; and the left extended its ranks to Neuilly. The right was first attacked; and the resistance

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was spirited, but ineffective. In the centre, the contest was prolonged, so as to inflict severe loss on the assailants; yet, in the course of a few hours, the attacks upon every post, except Montmartre, were successful. The consternation into which this triumph threw the Parisians may easily be conceived. They dreaded the outrages of the Cossacks, and the vengeance of the Prussians; and, if the mode of treatment had been left to the uncontrolled decision of those troops, the effect would have been dreadful. But the humanity of the allied princes, and of that general to whom they gave a plenitude of authority, revolted from all ideas of pillage, conflagration, and massacre. They allowed the defenders of the city to capitulate, and gave promises of friendly protection to all the inhabitants. It was agreed that the troops should retire to a distant spot, and that the allies should take possession of the capital.

This success would have been very imperfect, if a change of government had not resulted from it. The tyrant had hastened back from his imprudent march, as soon as he had received intelligence of the alarming movements of his adversaries: but he could not reach Paris, so as to superintend the defence; and his troops refused to support him, when they found that the city had been captured. Without being openly influenced by the victorious princes, who affected to avoid all interference, the conservative senate assigned the task of temporary government to five persons of distinction, and ordered a new constitution to be prepared without delay. It was also voted, on the 2d of April, that, as Napoleon had been guilty of many acts of tyranny and oppression, and had involved the country in danger, he should no longer be treated or acknowledged as the sovereign of France. When his deposition had been thus decreed, with an exclusion of his whole family from the succession, his rage seemed to be unbounded; but he soon found that it was useless to resist the torrent which ran so forcibly against him, and therefore resigned all pretensions to the throne, both in his own name and in that of his son.

While a constitution favorable to liberty was in progress, a considerable part of the population of Paris called for the immediate elevation of the brother of Louis XVI. to the throne; and, though some members of the senate would have preferred the duke of Orleans, it was deemed more advisable to follow the ordinary rules of succession. Louis XVIII. was chosen to supersede the dynasty of Napoleon; and deputies were sent to England, where that prince had long resided in privacy, to request his presence in the re-organised kingdom. He readily accepted the invitation, trusting to that desire of peace, which, after a series of commotions and of war, might be supposed to influence the majority of the nation.

After some farther hostilities in the south, the war ceased to rage. Bonaparté was sent to Elba, pensioned by the new court, and permitted to rule over the island. Louis took quiet possession of the throne; and, on the 30th of May, a treaty was adjusted, by which he agreed to the demands of the princes to whom he owed his crown. He resigned the territorial usurpations of the republic and of Napoleon, and reduced France within those frontiers which had been established before the revolutionary war arose with Austria. The principal colonies, which might have been safely retained by Great-Britain, were restored to the subjects of Louis with unnecessary liberality; and both the king and his people were treated with respect and with kindness.

Louis governed with moderation, yet not without spirit, being aware of the ill effects which had resulted from the passive mildness of his brother. He endeavoured to conciliate all parties, without the sacrifice of his authority. He found, however, that the army had still a

great influence over the country, and that the officers studiously propagated a disrespectful and contemptuous opinion of a prince who had not been bred to arms, and whose disposition prompted him to consider military glory as inferior to civil virtues.

When he had reigned for ten months, pursuing "the noiseless tenor of his way," the ill consequences of that lenity with which a sanguinary oppressor had been treated, appeared in the most alarming form. Napoleon took an opportunity of escaping unobserved, and landed in France, in March, 1815, with a small party, which was quickly increased by the adjunction of various regiments in the south. He crossed the kingdom without opposition, as if he had been returning in triumph from a glorious enterprise; resumed his power; and enforced the retreat of the whole royal family. If he had deliberately reflected on the determined spirit of the allied potentates, and had not implicitly trusted to his fame and influence, he would not have risked this bold attempt. They were settling, at Vienna, the complicated affairs of the continent, when they received intelligence of his invasion. They immediately declared him an outlaw and a public enemy, and menaced him with that vengeance which he deserved. In reply to this denunciation, he maintained his right of profiting by the favor and regard of the French, who had restored him to that power which they might lawfully grant, and which no other nation could be justified in controlling. He professed a wish for peace, and exhorted the princes to be equally attentive to its preservation. Finding that they had bound themselves by new engagements to oppose him, he prepared to meet the storm which he could not ward off; and, to secure the popular interest, he enacted a constitutional code, resembling that which had been lately accorded to the nation. He then marched to the Netherland frontier with all the troops that his influence could procure, and became the aggressor in a new war. He was for a short time successful; but his laurels faded in the field of Waterloo.

Having entered into some detail respecting that memorable conflict in our survey of the history of England, we proceed to observe, that the leader of the defeated army was never before thrown into such consternation as that which then oppressed him. When he reached Paris, he seemed eager to hide his shame in seclusion; but the necessity of consulting his confidential ministers roused him from his melancholy. Some advised him to act in the most arbitrary manner, dissolve the two assemblies which he had recently called into political existence, and defy the public clamors and censure; consoling him with the hope that a new army might easily be levied, and that victory might attend his renewed efforts. Others recommended coolness and moderation, and a temperate appeal to the zeal and patriotism of the legislature. The latter advice was that which he resolved to follow; and, even when he found that the resentment and indignation of the national deputies menaced him with dethronement, he did not dare to order a dissolution. His pride and presumption were so far subdued by his reverse of fortune, that he consented to a dereliction of his power, if the two chambers would secure the nomination of his son to the imperial dignity. The offer was gladly accepted; and he who had domineered over Europe with the most unfeeling arrogance, retired with seeming humility into the privacy of ordinary life.

The allies, in the mean time, were employed in overpowering that resistance which his partisans were yet disposed to make. Some fortified towns were reduced; and the king, who, during the renovated

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away of his rival, had kept his court at Ghent, returned in safety within his own frontiers. The duke of Wellington and Blucher, with divided but communicating armies, advanced towards the capital. The Prussians stormed Versailles, and forced the position of Issy; and, when the two generals were fully prepared for an attack upon Paris, the troops and the citizens capitulated. Yet the legislative assemblies continued to deliberate, with an intention of opposing the restoration of Louis, if he should refuse to sanction the new political arrangements which they had devised on Napoleon's abdication. Before the king re-entred the city, he sent a peremptory mandate for their dissolution, which they did not presume to disobey.

Driven from Paris by the requisition of the temporary rulers of France, Napoleon had retired to the coast, where he remained in a state of anxious alarm, apprehending that he might be punished by those princes whose keen resentment he had aroused. He was suffered to enjoy his liberty, as he had no remains of power: but, as his fears did not subside, he sought an opportunity of embarking at Rochefort, with a view of transporting himself to the territories of the United States. As such a scheme did not offer, to the European public, any security against the renewal of his mischievous practices, the British cruisers hovered about the port for the purpose of obstruction; and, when he found himself precluded from escape, he gave notice of his wish to accept protection from his most persevering enemies. He was therefore received into a British ship of war, and conveyed to the coast of Devon, where innumerable throngs gazed at him, when he appeared upon the deck, as a hero or a monster. He probably expected to be introduced to the prince regent, and treated with the most respectful politeness, as he had filled the highest station in political society: but he was not even permitted to disembark; and, after a detention which he bore with impatience, he was confounded by a mandate for his confinement in the island of St. Helena. He warmly protested against this treatment: but no regard was paid to his expostulations; and he lived for some years on that secluded spot, exhibiting a melancholy picture of mortified ambition. He died of a cancer in his stomach, on the 5th of May, 1821, in the 52d year of his age, loudly accusing the allied princes of having cruelly condemned him to a premature death.

The humanity of the restored monarch did not prevent him from inflicting capital punishment on some of those officers who had joined Napoleon on his return to France. It was the opinion of many, that he had not sufficient courage to sign a warrant for the execution of Ney, styled the prince of the Moskwa, an intrepid and able general; but he was not intimidated by the loud clamors of the ex-emperor's partisans, and this act of spirit had a great effect in over-awing the mal-contented. He was, at the same time, assailed with obloquy for tamely suffering the allied troops to carry off the pictures, statues, and manuscripts, which had been seized by the French in Italy and other countries: but the chief ground of reproach arose from the new treaty (concluded on the 20th of November), by which eighteen fortresses were given up for five years, to be garrisoned by 150,000 foreign soldiers, whom the French were obliged to maintain during that period, beside paying 700 millions of francs or livres, as a partial indemnification to the various governments which had been driven into war by encroachments and injuries.

Thus was the continent rescued from oppression and tyranny by the persevering efforts of Great-Britain and other powerful states, whose zealous exertions claim our applause. Some acts of the liberators of

Europe, indeed, particularly their arbitrary transference of territories, may be justly blamed; but the general spirit of those arrangements which emanated from the congress of Vienna may safely be commended, because they tended to maintain the balance of power, and to secure peace.

The allied princes, having attentively watched the conduct of the French, were disposed to believe that the peace would be permanent, or, at least, would not for some years be disturbed. They therefore consented (by a convention signed on the 9th of October, 1818), to subtract two years from the terms specified in the last treaty, and to withdraw their troops without farther delay. This concession allayed the animosity of the French, but did not sufficiently conciliate their good-will to our countrymen, whom they still seem to view with unfriendly eyes.

The king continued to govern with the advice of the legislative body; but it was easy to comply in that respect with the constitution, when the elections were so managed, that a majority of servile members were constantly procured. Some commotions and partial insurrections, in 1821 and 1822, gave him temporary uneasiness, but did not seriously shake his throne. He chiefly favored those ministers who were friendly to the constitution, while his brother encouraged the advocates of the old *régime*. The zeal of the latter faction seemed at length to infuse itself into the royal breast, and it was resolved that the revolutionary spirit of the Spaniards, who held their king in bondage, should be repressed by hostilities, as the contagion of their example might otherwise reach the good city of Paris. Having procured the sanction of the two chambers to the intended enterprise, Louis ordered his nephew, the duke d'Angoulême, to put his army in motion; and about 80,000 men commenced their march, in five divisions, toward the Pyrenees. In Navarre the invaders were favorably received; and, in their progress to Madrid, towns which might have been defended were readily surrendered. As Ferdinand and the cortes had left that city, a new government was quietly organised by the arrogant enemy, while the constitutional rulers, forcing the king to accompany them, were seeking refuge within the fortifications of Cadiz. In the mean time, Mina harassed the French in Catalonia with great spirit, but with ineffective success. Ballasteros seemed to be equally zealous; but, being defeated in a brisk conflict, he submitted to the new government. Riego had too small a force to act with decisive vigor; and, being closely watched, he was obliged to yield to his pursuers. The cortes strengthened the posts in the isle of Leon; but the reduction of the Trocadero and another fort, and a fierce bombardment from the French fleet, diffused such a panic, that ulterior resistance was deemed hopeless. The assembly ceased to act; the king was restored to full liberty: and the duke returned to France, leaving a considerable force in Spain for the preservation of the tranquillity of despotism.

In the mean time, the king gradually declined in health and in strength. He felt the ill effects of habitual intemperance, by which his frame was bloated and corrupted. He died on the 16th of September, 1824, in the 69th year of his age. He had good sense, without great talents; possessed a greater firmness of character than his unfortunate predecessor; and was in general attentive to the interest and welfare of his people.

His brother quietly ascended the throne, and gratified the public with an abolition of that censorship of the press which the late king had introduced; but, by giving his confidence to the Jesuitical bigots, and

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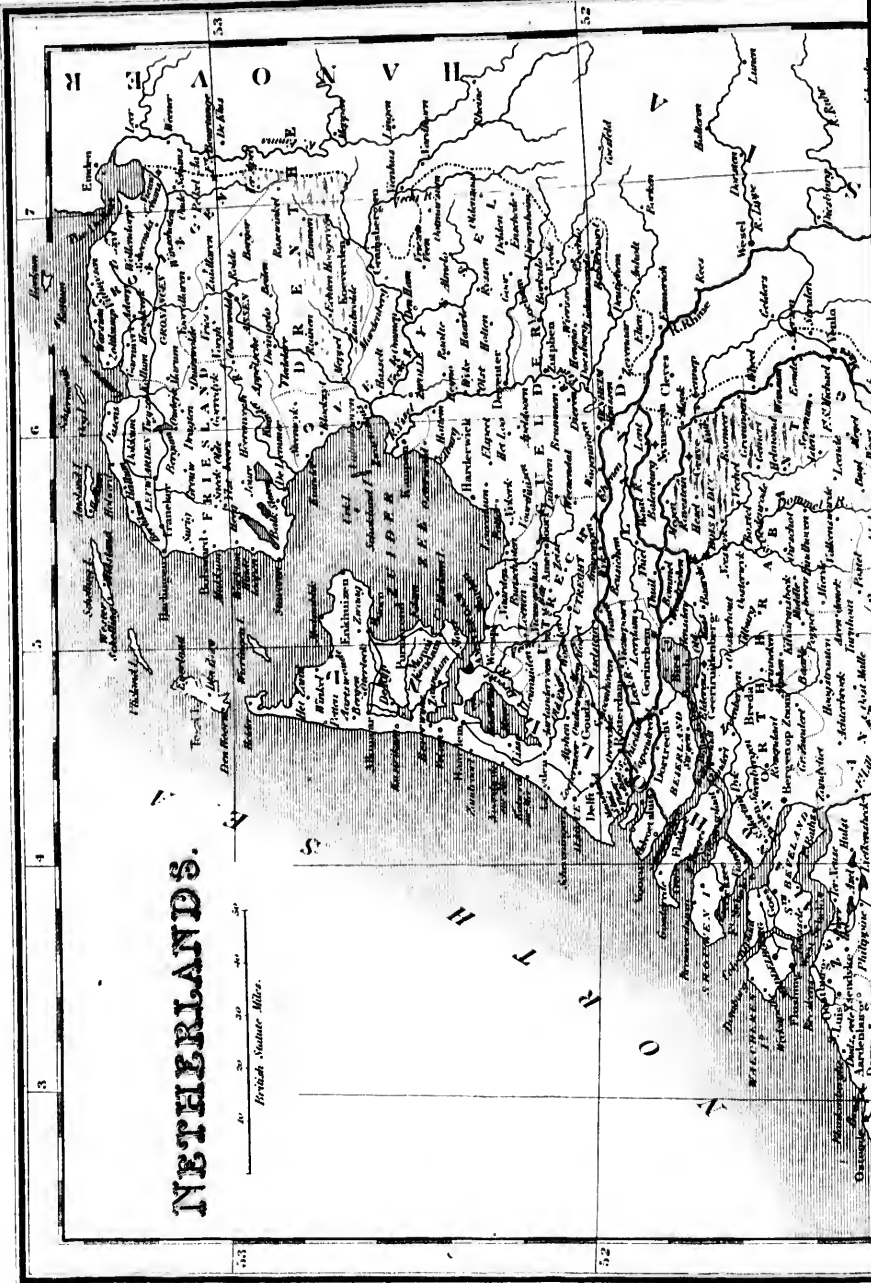
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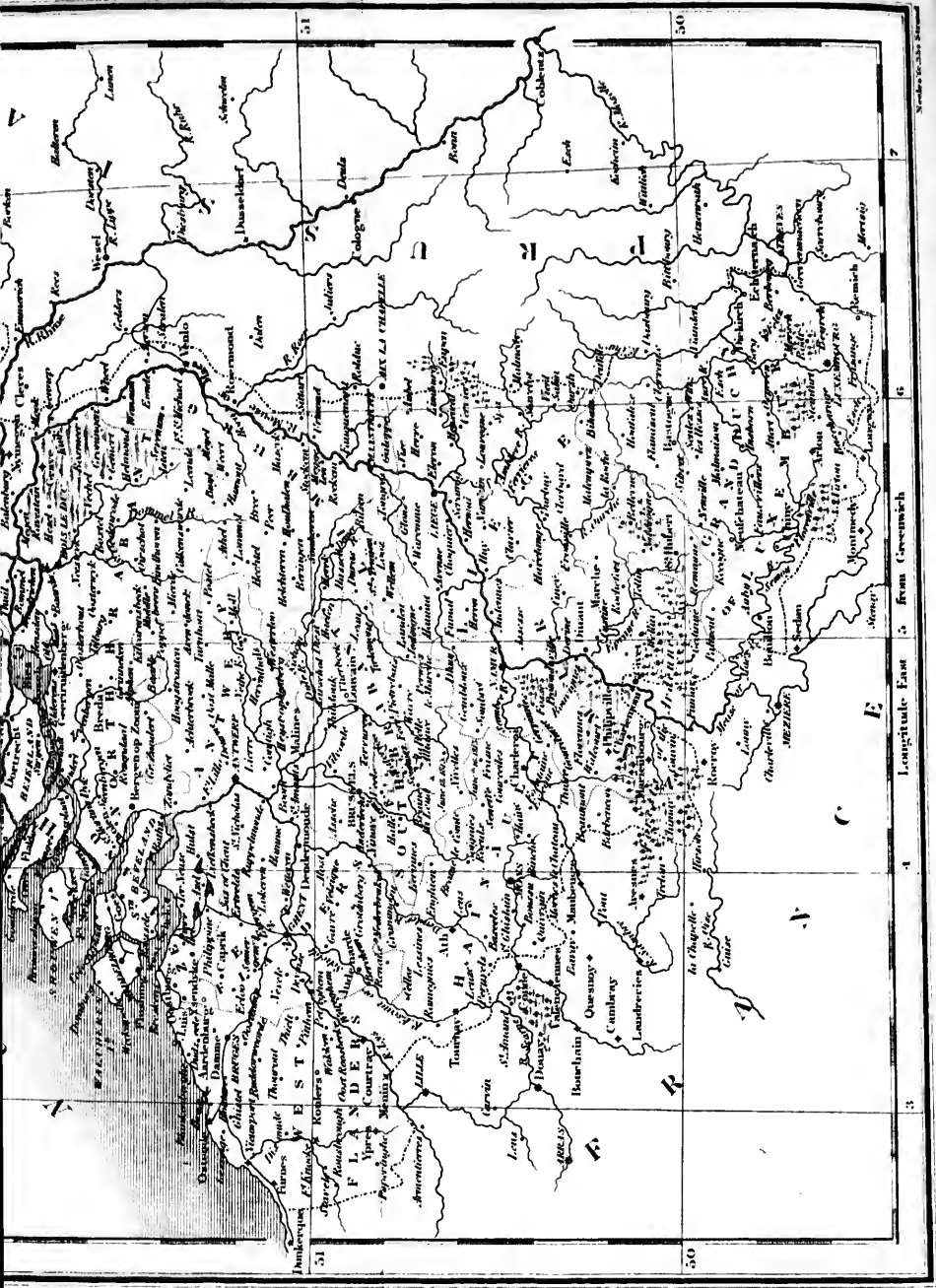
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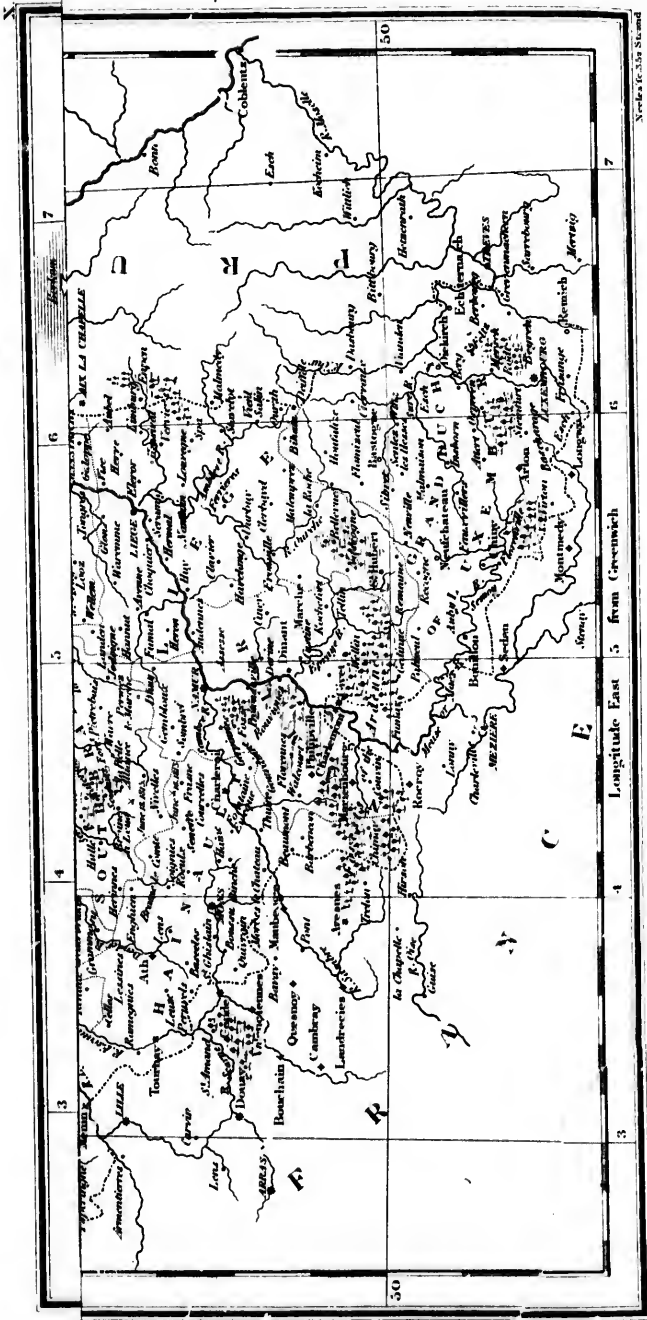
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London: Published May 17, 1850 by J. Moxon & Co. under Patronage



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enacting a severe law against sacrilege (an offence which he might have checked without arbitrary rigor), he soon lost the popularity which seemed to attend him on his accession.

Charles (Louis Philippe) X. was born Oct. 9, 1757. He married, in 1773, Maria Theresa, princess of Sardinia, who died in 1805, leaving two sons,—Louis and Charles, dukes of Angoulême and Berri. The former, now the dauphin, was born in 1775, and, in 1799, espoused his cousin, the daughter of Louis XVI. The latter was born in 1778, and became, in 1816, the husband of Caroline princess of Naples; but, in 1820, he was murdered by Louvel, who cherished a malignant animosity against the whole house of Bourbon. He left a son, styled the duke of Bourdeaux.

THE

KINGDOM OF THE NETHERLANDS;

COMPREHENDING

THE BELGIAN PROVINCES AND THE LATE REPUBLIC OF HOLLAND.

Although these territories are now (as they formerly were) united under one sovereign, it seems advisable to speak of them in two divisions, because, having been so long disjoined in the important points of religion and government, they are not yet fully amalgamated.

BELGIUM.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 155 }	between	{ 49,20 and 51,30, North latitude.
Breadth 150 }		{ 2,40 and 6,10, East longitude.

Containing 9,500 square miles, with more than 289 inhabitants to each.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] The seventeen provinces, extending from the French frontier to the river Ems, formerly composed a part of Belgic Gaul, and afterward of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy in the German empire. In consequence of their low situation, they were called the Netherlands. Two of the number (Artois and the Cambresis) were conquered by the French: seven revolted from the Spaniards; and the rest, during the greater part of the eighteenth century, were known by the name of the Austrian Netherlands. The last are bounded on the north by Holland; on the east by the Prussian territories; on the south by the French departments of the North, Ardennes, and Moselle; and on the west by a part of France, and by the sea which separates Britain from the continent. They are divided into

the provinces of Flanders, Brabant, Antwerp, Malines, or Mechlin, Limburg, Namur, Hainault, and Luxemburg. Liege, which was long deemed a part of Germany, is also included. The two first are the most flourishing of the whole number, and are supposed to contain a far greater number of inhabitants than all the rest taken together.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The Netherlands are a flat country, containing no mountains, and few hills. The rural scene 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 the rivers wind, and the clear canals pursue their useful course.

FORESTS.] In Brabant is the forest of Soignes; and in Hainault and Luxemburg are ample remains of the forest of Ardennes, which formerly extended from the Moselle to the sea.

RIVERS, CANALS.] Among the chief rivers are the Maes, Schelde, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Geete, Rupel, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The Maes, or Meuse, rises in France near Langres, enters the kingdom of the Netherlands near Givet, and flows across the country into South-Holland. The Schelde originates to the southward of Cambrai, passes through the province of Hainault, proceeds to Antwerp, and flows, by two great branches, into the German Ocean. 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, as are some marble quarries; and in Namur 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; in the interior parts it is more healthful, and the seasons are more settled, both in winter and summer, than they are in England. The soil and its produce are rich, especially in corn and fruit. There is an abundance of pasture; and Flanders has of late 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 who are well qualified to judge of it, and has, indeed, been celebrated for these 600 years past. Upon the whole, these provinces, by the culture, commerce, and industry, of the inhabitants, were formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, for the variety of manufactures, the magnificence and riches of the cities, the pleasantness of the roads and villages, and the fertility of the land.

VEGETABLES, ANIMALS.] Great quantities of corn, flax, and madder, and also hops and tobacco, are raised in the Netherlands, and the pasturage is particularly abundant. The cattle, which are pure and lean in Germany, soon increase in bulk; and the native cattle, in most of the provinces, show by their size the luxuriance of the soil from which they are fed. The animals are nearly the same as in France.

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.

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POPULATION.] It was affirmed, by the French, that these provinces contained above three millions of souls under their sway : but this calculation seems to have transcended the truth ; and it does not appear that the present number, with all the increase which has taken place since the rescue of the country from their grasp, exceeds two millions and three quarters.

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, were generally considered as a heavy, blunt, honest people, ignorant, bigoted, and superstitious. When they were under the yoke of their Gallic neighbours, being less oppressed than the former subjects of France, they seemed to shake off their habitual gravity, and to imitate the vivacity of their new masters, whose example, at the same time, did not tend to improve their morality : but they did not, in general, suffer their catholic zeal to be relaxed by the suggestions of scepticism.

CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Brussels, the former residence of the Austrian governor, is now the capital of the Netherland kingdom. It is partly built on an eminence, and partly on a plain watered by the small river Senne. Its fortifications were destroyed, or rendered useless, in a military point of view, by the emperor Joseph II. ; but the ramparts, being planted with trees, form beautiful walks round the city. Some of the squares are spacious and handsome ; and a neat regularity of building prevails in the town. That extensive tract which is called the Park is a public garden, intersected by walks, and varied by lawns, ornamented with fountains and statues. It is surrounded by magnificent buildings ; and the whole is calculated to excite the admiration of strangers. The old palace, which is rather stately than elegant, contains a fine collection of pictures, a cabinet of natural history, and a valuable library. The most admired religious buildings are the church of St. Gudule and the chapel of Notre Dame. About 85,000 persons compose the population ; and among them are many families of British emigrants, who have been attracted to this spot by the supposed salubrity of the air, the beauty of the situation, and the comparative facility of subsistence.

Antwerp, in the sixteenth century, was the great emporium of the continent : but the selfishness and jealousy of the Dutch ruined its commerce by obstructing the navigation of the Schelde. It is now rapidly recovering from its long decline ; and its commerce perhaps will soon be equal to that of Amsterdam or Hamburg. Its merchants receive the commodities and manufactures of most of the Belgian towns, and conduct on a large scale the business of exportation ; and its port is so well frequented, that, in the year 1817, it boasted of the arrival of 999 trading vessels. While it was possessed by Bonaparté, he enlarged and improved the harbour, constructed extensive docks and store-houses, and strengthened the town by the skillful labors of the engineer. The population is increasing, and is supposed to amount to 75,000. Among the public edifices, the cathedral, the old church of the Jesuits, the town-house, and exchange, are particularly distinguished.

Ghent was formerly a more considerable town than it is at present ; but it is still populous, and carries on a profitable trade in linen and corn. Bruges and Ostend are also commercial towns of some importance.

Luxemburg is more famous for its natural and artificial strength, than for the extent or value of its traffic. It is romantically situated on two abrupt rocks, which overhang the Else. Namur is likewise a strong

town; and its population doubles that of Luxemburg; for it contains about 21,000 persons, who are employed in iron and lead works. Mons is a large and well-built town, containing about 27,000 inhabitants, who profit by manufactures and coal-mines.

Liege, which was long the seat of a bishop who was a prince of the empire, is still a considerable town. In the time of its independence, it was called the paradise of priests, who were its most opulent inhabitants; but some of its churches are now in ruins, and ecclesiastical tyranny has yielded to civil influence. The manufactures carried on in this city and its environs evince the industry of the people, and an appearance of comfort is pleasingly observable among them. The situation is remarkable; the town is narrowed by the proximity of lofty hills to the Maes, and the multiplied branches of the river form many islands, which are bordered by well-constructed quays, and communicate by bridges of varied forms. On the same river stands the strong, beautiful, and flourishing town of Maestricht.

MANUFACTURES, AND COMMERCE.] Some important manufactures are prosecuted by the artisans of the Netherlands with great spirit and success. Their lace (of which the finer sort is made at Brussels and Antwerp, and the stronger species at Mechlin and Bruges) is not equaled by that of any other country; and their linen is also in high estimation. Silken, cotton, and woollen articles, are likewise fabricated to advantage, if not with that skill which is displayed in Great-Britain or in France. Fire-arms, stoves, and cutlery, are well manufactured; earthen-ware is also made for exportation; and many refineries of salt and sugar are established over the country.

GOVERNMENT.] When these provinces were subject to Austria, they had no regular constitution, as it had been subverted by the emperor Joseph, who, though he was bound to adhere to the guaranty of the *joyeuse entrée* and of all the privileges of his Netherland subjects (stipulated on the accession of his grandfather Charles VI.), consulted only his own arbitrary will and caprice. Even Leopold, when he reclaimed the revoltors, meanly avoided a compliance with their just expectations. Yet his despotism, and that of his son Francis, did not proceed to the extreme of tyranny. Under the French yoke, it could not be supposed that great regard would be paid to the rights of the people; but, when the success of the allies put the prince of Orange in possession of the country, he condescended to grant a new constitution to the Netherlands, in 1815, on the basis of a complete union with Holland. He promised that a general assembly, freely elected, should exercise its deliberations alternately in each country; that the government should be administered with a due regard to the suggestions and advice of the national representatives; that all citizens, whether catholics or protestants, should have an equal chance of being admitted to public offices and employments; and that the Belgians should be gratified with a full participation of all the commercial and colonial advantages which were already enjoyed by the Hollanders.

RELIGION.] Before the conquest of Belgium by the French, the established religion was the Roman-catholic; but protestants, and other sects, were not molested, though they were not allowed to have public places of worship. When the country formed a part of France, it was subject to the regulations of the *concordat* concluded between that power and the see of Rome.

The archbishopric of Mechlin was the metropolitan see; Cambrai was also an archbishopric. The bishoprics were Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer's, Namur, and Roermond.

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The catholic hierarchy is still preserved even by a royal Calvinist; but he is not disposed to gratify the Belgian prelates with exclusive supremacy, or the arbitrary direction of religious affairs.

LITERATURE AND THE ARTS.] The society 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 interesting 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 Rubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. The models for heads of Fiamingo, or the Flemings, particularly those of children, have never yet been equaled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed the art of tapestry-weaving.

UNIVERSITIES.] These were at Louvain and Tournay. The former was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant; and by a grant of pope Sixtus IV. it had the privilege of presenting to all the livings in the Netherlands. It was suppressed by Joseph II.; and some of its colleges now form the hotel of invalids.

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 monasteries, 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 laborers found sixteen hundred gold coins, and ancient medals, of Antoninus Pius, Marcus Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

HISTORY.] About a century before the Christian era, the Battæ removed from the country now called Hesse to the marshy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maes, and gave the name of Batavia to their new territory. 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 service. 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 Gaul and other parts of the Roman empire; and afterwards being divided into small governments, the heads of which were despotic within their own dominions, Batavia became independent of Germany, to which it had been united under one of the grandsons of Charlemagne, 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 in 1433. To the house of Austria they were transferred in 1477, in consequence of the marriage of the archduke Maximilian with the heiress. The tyranny of that prince's great-grandson, Philip II. of Spain, occasioned an insurrection of the provincials, at whose head appeared the counts Hoorn and Egmont, and the prince of Orange; and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the same time in the Netherlands, his disciples were forced by persecution to join the mal-contenta. Philip, in consequence, introduced a kind of inquisition (which, from the inhumanity of its proceedings, was called the Council of Blood), in order to suppress the revolt; and

many thousands were put to death by that court, beside those who perished by the sword. Hoorn and Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange (whom the insurgents elected for their stadtholder) retiring into Holland, that and the six adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in 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 able direction of the prince of Orange, and with the aid afforded to them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain, in 1609, to declare them a free people; and they were acknowledged by all Europe as an independent state, under the appellation of THE UNITED PROVINCES.

After this separation, the Spaniards remained masters of ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the Netherlands or Low-Countries, until the duke of Marlborough, as general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, in 1706; after which, these provinces acknowledged Charles VI., afterwards emperor of Germany, for their sovereign; and his daughter, Maria Theresa, continued to possess them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except a part of the duchy of Luxemburg, and would have retained them from that time, but for the exertions of the Dutch, and chiefly of the English, in favor 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 Joseph II. in the years 1788 and 1789.

The quarrel originated, like those in other countries, from the prerogatives assumed by the emperor, which were more extensive than his subjects wished to allow. He pretended to be humane and philanthropic; but he did not treat the insurgents with lenity. A proclamation was issued by count Trautmansdorff, governor of Brussels, intimating, that no quarter should be given to them, and that the villages in which they concealed themselves should be set on fire. General Dalton marched with 7000 men to retake the fortresses, proclaiming that he intended to become master of them by assault, and would put every soul found in them to the sword.

Almost every town in the Austrian Netherlands now showed its determination to oppose the emperor. A formidable army soon took the field; which, after some successful skirmishes, obtained possession of Ghent, Bruges, Tournay, Mechlin, and Ostend. A battle was fought before Ghent, in which the patriots were victorious, though with the loss of 1000 men. 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 infants. By these horrible barbarities, they ensured success to their adversaries, who 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.

Although the provinces thus appeared for ever separated from the house of Austria, the death of Joseph, happening soon after, produced such a change in the conduct of the government, as gave a very unexpected turn to the situation of affairs; and the mild and pacific disposition of Leopold, the conciliatory measures which he adopted, and the mediation of Great-Britain, Prussia, and Holland, led to an amicable

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settlement. In 1790, a convention was signed at Reichenbach by the high contracting powers, which had for its object the re-establishment of peace and good order in the Belgic provinces of his imperial majesty.

When the French revolution was in its progress, its effects were not immediately felt by the Netherland provinces; but their proximity to the agitated country, and the menacing aspect of their sovereign, exposed them to the early violence of the storm. The speedy success of the invaders, in 1792, we have already recorded. After the transient recovery of a great portion of the country, a repetition of conquest followed, on the part of the French, who retained the Netherlands with the seeming acquiescence of the people, until the year 1814, when the fall of Paris produced a momentous change in the state of the continent. The emperor Francis, in consideration of his acquisitions in Italy, and from a desire of giving additional power and respectability to the prince of Orange, waved his pretensions to the provinces which he had received from his ancestors; and it was resolved, even before they were secured by the battle of Waterloo, that they should compose, in conjunction with Holland, the kingdom of the Netherlands. Some pecuniary grants, out of the French contributions, were appropriated to the reparation of the fortresses, that a new barrier might be formed against future invasion.

That catholic bigotry, and that jealousy of the preponderance of Holland, which at first excited some degree of repugnance in the minds of the Belgians to the proposed union, seem to be gradually subsiding under the government of a moderate and well-disposed prince; and the new kingdom flourishes as a secondary state, if not as a first-rate power.

HOLLAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	150	} between	{ 51,20 and 53,30 North latitude.
Breadth	120		

Containing 9400 square miles, with 308 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] This country was a part of that which was inhabited by the Batavi: it is usually called Holland, from the name of the chief province, the word implying a *hollow* or low country.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded on the north and west by the German ocean, and the Zuyder-Zee; on the east by Germany; and on the south by Belgium.

DIVISIONS.] The United Provinces were, in strictness of speech, eight, namely, Holland, Over-Yssel, Zealand, Friseland, Utrecht, Groningen, Guelderland, and Zutphen; but, the two last forming only one province, they are generally termed the Seven United Provinces. Beside these, the Dutch republic contained the county of Drenthe, a kind of separate province in Over-Yssel, 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.

After the expulsion of the stadtholder, the French restored to the country its ancient name, and divided it into eight departments, which are now superseded by a revival of the old divisions.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] Holland is situated on the east side of the English channel, and is only a narrow slip of low swampy land between the mouths of several great rivers, gained from the sea by means of stupendous dykes. Here are no mountains or 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.

RIVERS, LAKES, CANALS.] The chief rivers of Holland are the Rhine (one of the largest rivers in Europe), the Maes, the Doonmel, the Waal, the Yssel, and the Schelde. There are many small rivers that fall into these.

The principal lake of Holland is that of Haerlem; less considerable lakes are found in North-Holland, in Friseland, and Groningen.

The canals of these provinces are almost innumerable. The usual way of passing from town to town is by covered boats, called treck-schuits, 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 traveling, though to strangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants. By means of these canals an extensive inland commerce is not only carried on, 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 treck-schuit is divided into two apartments, called the roof and the ruim: the former for gentlemen, and the other for common people. Near Amsterdam and other large cities, a traveler is astonished when he beholds the effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce. Here the canals are lined with neat country-houses, seated in the midst of gardens and pleasure-grounds, intermixed with figures, busts, statues, temples, &c., to the very edge of the water.

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 the 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 chief reason of the perpetual rubbing and scouring, and of the brightness and cleanliness in the houses. The soil is unfavorable 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 formed 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 some of 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 European state. Storks build and

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batch on their chimneys; but, being birds of passage, they leave the country about the middle of August, with their young, and return in the January following. Their river-fish are much the same as ours; but their sea-fish are generally larger, in consequence perhaps of their fishing in deep water. No herrings visit their coasts; but they have many excellent oyster-beds about the islands of the Texel. 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 strangers), as can be met with in any part of Europe.

CURIOSITIES.] Holland, like Belgium, 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 traveler; 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 one of the best buildings of that kind in the world: it stands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inside is both commodious and magnificent. Several museums, containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the university of Leyden.

POPULATION.] The Seven United Provinces are apparently 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, beside the people in the Lands of the Generality; and, though the population declined during the very oppressive government to which the Dutch were subjected by Napoleon, who nearly ruined their trade, and destroyed their youth in his warlike enterprises, we may perhaps be justified in elevating their present number nearly to 2,900,000.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch, 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 labor; and the artificial drains, with which it is 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 seem to originate in their coolness with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own interests; for, in all other respects, they are quiet neighbours, and peaceable subjects. Their valor becomes warm and active, when they believe their interests to be at stake; witness their naval wars with England and France. Their boors are slow of understanding, but are manageable by fair means. Their seamen are plain, blunt, rough, and surly. Their tradesmen in general are upright and honest in their dealings, and very sparing of their words; and, as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are so insocial. In consequence of their want of feeling for strangers, and their inherent selfishness, they have 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 few instances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual drinking charged upon both sexes, it may be attributed, in a great measure, to the nature of their soil and climate. In general, all appetites and passions seem to run lower and cooler among the Dutch than in most other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unusual strains of pleasant humor; 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 preserving it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to spend less than his income; for it does not 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 general among the Dutch as it was formerly; for luxury and extravagance have made some encroachments. Gaming is practised by many of their fashionable ladies; and some of them even discover a propensity to gallantry. 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 heavy taxes and numerous contributions, many of them flourish and grow rich. By 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, which 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 used to rely for the protection and safety of their territories against invasion. They covered their frontiers and cities with innumerable sluices; by means of which, at the shortest notice, the most rapid inundations were let in, and they seemed to be inaccessible. Yet their attempts of this kind did not prevent the temporary subjugation of their capital by the duke of Brunswick, or preclude the success of the French. In both cases, indeed, a very strong party favored the invaders, and checked the zeal of defensive exertion.

By that frugality and perseverance, by which they were so much characterised, the Dutch were enabled, though laboring 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 to become, from a despicable province, a most potent and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the rise of their military and marine establishments; maintaining, during their celebrated contest with Louis XIV. and Charles II., not less than 150,000 men, and eighty ships of the line. But, a spirit of frugality

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being now less prevalent among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries of the English and the French; and their nobility and high magistrates, who have retired from trade, rival those of any other part of Europe in the elegances of the table, in their 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, nine-pin grounds, and bowling-greens, not to mention their hand-organs and other musical inventions. They are the best skaters 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 most permanent amusement of a Hollander is smoking. His pipe and tobacco-box are his constant companions. The English (except the higher ranks) are also too fond of this disgusting practice.

The dress of the Dutch formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men, and the jerkins, mob-caps, enormous hats, 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. In the towns, persons of the middle class differ very little in their dress from the English, except that their clothes are of a coarser fabric. The men, in their persons, are short and stout: and the women (which is certainly not the case in England) are in general taller than the men, and not remarkable for elegant or expressive features. Some have attributed the white and fishy face, which is noticed with surprise by strangers, to the preposterous treatment of infants, who are swathed and in a manner overwhelmed with clothing, and deprived of the benefit of fresh air. The domestic virtues of the women are topics of praise; and their manners are less repulsive than those of the men. Their great attention to cleanliness is a pleasing trait in their characters; but it is more studiously bestowed upon their houses than their persons. The practice of using a *chauffe-pied* under their petticoats cannot tend to the purpose of neatness; nor is it absolutely necessary for the communication of that warmth which might be obtained with sufficiency in a less indelicate mode.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Amsterdam, situated at the conflux of the Amstel with a sort of creek called the Y or Wye, was the residence of only a few fishermen at the beginning of the thirteenth century; but it became a commercial town about the year 1370, from which time it gradually rose to importance and to opulence. Its form is semi-circular; and its circumference is about nine miles. Being built in the midst of a morass, almost the whole city stands upon oaken piles, fixed with great labor in the mud or humid earth. It is a fortified town; but the works are not remarkably strong. Most of the streets are intersected by canals, and adorned with rows of trees. No fine squares, like those of Brussels, are observable; but some of the streets are wide, and furnished with stately mansions. The public buildings most worthy of notice, beside the stadt-house, are those of the East and West India companies, the exchange, the bank, the post-office, the arsenal, the admiralty, the orphan-house, and those churches which are particularly called the old and the new. There are literary societies that are well supported, and charitable institutions which are under judicious management. Many theatres are occasionally open for general enter-

tainment. For permitting such amusements, the magistrates may not be thought to deserve blame; but, when we find that they also regularly license houses of ill fame, we are disposed to censure the laxity of their morals. The population of this city, in 1785, amounted to 230,000; but, during the decline of its commerce, it fell below 200,000. It is now, however, gradually increasing.

The Hague was long the seat of government, though it was only considered as a village, being neither walled, nor indulged with the privilege of sending deputies to the states. The magnificence of some of its buildings, the elegance of others, and the neatness of the greater part, are noticed by every visitant. The streets are long and wide, and handsome squares vary the scene. About 37,000 persons reside on this spot; and it has been remarked, that they more resemble the English in their appearance and manners, than any other portion of the Dutch community.

Rotterdam, next to Amsterdam, is the most flourishing town in Holland. It stands near the confluence of the Maas; and, in consequence of the depth of its canals, the largest vessels may closely approach the warehouses. The prevalent style of Dutch building is more particularly observable in this town. The houses are very lofty, with projecting stories: the walls are composed of very small bricks, and the windows are exceedingly large. A number of mills for sawing timber, and other purposes, rising from the summits of various buildings, some whimsically painted, and others adorned with grotesque figures, have an extraordinary appearance. The finest street is the Boom-quay, extending about a mile along a branch of the Maas. This city was dignified by the birth of Erasmus, and is honored by the institution of a scientific academy. With regard to its population, the accounts materially differ; but we may presume that it is not less than 53,000. The academical city of Leyden is equally, if not more populous; and it is one of the finest towns in Holland.

Utrecht is a large, handsome, and populous town, pleasantly situated on one of the channels of the Rhine. It was formerly the see of an archbishop; and the ruins of its cathedral exhibit an admired specimen of ancient magnificence. From the cloisters of that edifice are formed the lecture-rooms of the university. The city is occupied by 35,000 persons, many of whom are employed in various branches of manufacture.

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES.] An account of the commerce of the Dutch, previous to the French revolution, would have comprehended that of almost all Europe. There is scarcely a manufacture that they did not carry on, or a state with which they did not trade. In this they were assisted by the populousness of their country, the cheapness of their labor, and above all, by their water-carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond most other nations. The United Provinces were the grand magazine of Europe; and commodities might be purchased here sometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. The India Company had the monopoly of the most valuable spices, and, before the last war with Great-Britain, was extremely opulent and powerful.

Even at the present time, the trade and manufactures of the Dutch are very considerable. Wool, linen, silk, and cotton, are wrought with silk into various articles of dress and ornament: the practice of bleaching is carried on with peculiar success: porcelain, paper, hemp, leather, and

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a multiplicity of other commodities, are made for exportation. Beside these articles, the products of the colonies are sent to almost every country in Europe: the carrying-trade is still prosecuted to advantage; and the business of exchange is more extensively carried on by the merchants of Amsterdam, than by those of any other continental city.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of these the principal is the East-India company, incorporated in 1602. By the channel of this establishment, the Dutch formerly acquired immense wealth, and divided forty per cent. and sometimes fifty, about the year 1660; at present the dividends are much reduced; but, in a hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors, one year with another, shared twenty-four per cent. In 1760, they divided fifteen per cent., while the West-India company shared no more than two and a half per cent. This society was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amsterdam was thought to be inexhaustibly rich, and was under an excellent direction. Sir William Temple said, that it contained the greatest treasure, either real or imaginary, that was 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 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 (others say thirty) millions sterling. If this treasure had existed in the year 1795, the French invaders would have quickly embezzled it; but it is said that scarcely any remains of it were then found, as the valuable deposits had been lent out at different times on the faith of bonds, which were preserved in lieu of the subtracted treasure.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, LAWS.] Before the French entered Holland, the United Provinces formed a common confederacy; yet each province had an internal government or constitution independent of the others. Each had its states, and the delegates from them formed the states-general, in which body the sovereignty of the whole confederacy was vested. The council of state consisted likewise of deputies from the several provinces, and it was composed of twelve persons. Guelderland sent two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Friesland, one; Over-Yssel, one; and Groningen, one. These deputies 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 submitted to 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 of the States-general of the United Netherlands, or their High Mightinesses. These two bodies had under them a financial chamber, composed of provincial deputies, who audited the national 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 no concern either in the choice of their representatives or their magistrates. At Amsterdam, which took the lead in the public deliberations, the magistracy was lodged in thirty-six senators, who were chosen for life; and every vacancy was filled up by the survivors. The same senate also elected the deputies to represent the cities in the province of Holland.

These 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 as, by his power and influence, he could change the deputies, magistrates, and officers, in every province and city, he moulded at his will 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 than some kings; for, beside the influence and revenue which he derived from the stadtholdership, he had several principalities and large estates. The stadtholder, whom the French expelled in 1795, and who never recovered his power, was William V. prince of Orange and Nassau, son of William Charles, who married Anne, princess royal of Great-Britain, and died in 1751.

Though Holland under this constitution was called a republic, 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 supposed. It was indeed rather an oligarchy than a commonwealth. Very few persons dared to speak their real sentiments freely; and the citizens were generally educated in principles so extremely cautious, that they could not relinquish them when they entered more into public life.

On the conquest of Holland by the French, a convention was assembled to administer the government, and frame a constitution for the new Batavian republic. The first plan presented for this purpose was rejected by the people in the primary assemblies; but another was afterwards drawn up, which was accepted. This constitution was changed in several particulars in 1798; and the republic was then governed by a directory of twelve members, the president of which was changed once in three months, and of which one member went out annually; and by a legislative body of 35 members, which assembled twice or more frequently in the year, and appointed a committee of twelve of its members to examine and report on the laws and regulations proposed by the directory.

In the year 1806, it pleased Napoleon to erect Holland into a royal government, giving to it a king in the person of his brother, Louis Bonaparté. By the new constitution, then introduced, the king was to possess the complete exercise of the executive government, and all the power necessary to carry the laws into effect. A legislative body of thirty-eight members, however, and a council of thirteen, were at the same time organised; and with these the ministers were required to deliberate. But, as this form of government quickly passed away, it does not demand farther notice.

As the king of Holland was more disposed to favor the people than his tyrannical brother wished, he was dethroned in 1810 by an imperial order; and the whole country was more fully subjected to France by a regular incorporation. When this close connexion had subsisted for three years, it was dissolved by the victory of Leipsic; and an early result of the restoration of the house of Orange was the grant of a new constitution, allowing, instead of the aristocratic system which had long prevailed, a body of popular representatives, as a check both upon the higher assembly and the king.

With respect to the administration of justice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal causes, appeals lie from the petty and county courts; and it is said that justice is no where distributed with greater impartiality.

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REVENUE.] The old government of the United Provinces proportioned the taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Those imposts 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 ratio of contribution will serve to show the opinion entertained by the ruling power, before the French revolution, of the comparative opulence of each province:

Of every million of ducats, Holland con- } tributed	420,000
Zealand	130,000
Friseland	170,000
Utrecht	85,000
Groningen	75,000
Guelderland	70,000
Over-Yssel	50,000

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the chief province, Amsterdam furnished 320,000. The taxes in these provinces were then so heavy, and so numerous, that, according to the remark of a sarcastic author, the only thing exempt from taxation was the air which the people were graciously allowed to breathe. But, for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandise have usually been low.

The poverty occasioned by the ruin or great decline of the Dutch trade, in consequence of the war with Great-Britain and of Bonaparté's continental system, greatly diminished the revenues of the country; but, in consequence of the judicious regulations which have been introduced by the present government, a sufficient revenue is raised with greater convenience and with less oppression. In 1817, the supplies for the whole kingdom of the Netherlands were estimated at a sum which exceeded 6,783,000*l.* sterling; but, as the revenue did not equal that amount, a small loan became necessary.

ARMY, NAVY.] The Dutch army, during peace, consisted, for a long period, of about 40,000 men. It was afterward greatly reduced, and is not at present in a formidable state; nor can the Belgians boast of a great or flourishing army.

The navy of Holland, after the death of the stadtholder, King William III., was much neglected. In 1784, it consisted of forty ships of the line, forty-three frigates, and eleven sloops: but the two wars in which the Dutch were involved with Great-Britain, and the French revolution, contributed in their effects to the ruin of the marine. They have yet a naval force; but it is evidently upon a small scale.

RELIGION.] When the French had extended their influence over Holland, in 1795, the new republic declared that no religion was established or paid by the state. Before that time, the general religion of the country was the Calvinistic system; and none but presbyterians obtained any office or post in the government; yet all sects were tolerated, and had their respective meetings or assemblies for public worship. 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 Holland has any reason to complain of being oppressed on account of his religious principles: nor can he have any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party or to break in upon the go-

vernment; and, therefore the people live together as citizens of the world; their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are associated 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. Haerlem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magistrates keep two copies of a book entitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by Koster in 1440; and the most elegant editions of the classics, in the seventeenth century, came from the 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, predestination, and other doctrines. Beside Boerhaave, Holland has produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius, Gronovius, both the father and son, and Burman, are celebrated commentators upon the classics. Some Dutch poets have also appeared, among whom Cats and Joost Vanden-Vondel are the most admired.

UNIVERSITIES.] These are, Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwick, and Franeker.

The university of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largest and most ancient in all the Dutch provinces. Beside a great number of printed books, its library contains above two thousand oriental manuscripts.

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 botanic garden belonging to it is very curious: and for the recreation of the students, on the east side of the city, is a beautiful mall, consisting of seven straight walks, two thousand paces in length, regularly planted with limes. To these seminaries many young men of rank, or sons of opulent traders, are sent from other European countries; and the force of example is strikingly exhibited; for, as frugality in expense, order, a composed behaviour, attention to study, and assiduity in all things, are the characteristics of the natives, strangers who continue amongst them soon adopt, but not perhaps permanently, their manners and form of living; and though the students live at their discretion, 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 diligence 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 hither with as little scruple as protestants.

LANGUAGE.] The Dutch language is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the gentry speak English and French. The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onse Vader, die in de hemlim zyn, uwen naam worde geheyligt: uw' koningryk 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 schuldaeren: ende enlaet ons niet in versoeckinge, maer vertast ons van der boosen. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.] Holland contains few antiquities. Near Catwyck is a ruinous Roman tower; and in the middle of Leyden is an artificial mount, on which is a round tower, built, according to traditional report, by Hengist, the leader of the Saxons who invaded England.

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[History.] After the Seven United Provinces had obtained their independence, as related in our summary of the history of the Netherlands; they soon became distinguished as a commercial and maritime state; and in their wars with England, under the commonwealth, Cromwell, and Charles II., justly acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power. When the house of Austria had so far declined as to be no longer formidable, and when the public jealousy was directed against that of Bourbon, which was favored by the political leaders in Holland, who had deprived the prince of Orange of the dignity of stadtholder, such was the spirit of the people, 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 Louis XIV. of France. They consequently shared the reputation and glory of the great victories which were obtained by the duke of Marlborough; and, in concert with that fortunate general, they would have humbled Louis more effectually, if the career of success had not been checked by the intrigues of the queen's Tory ministers. As a continuance of the war, however, without the assistance of Great-Britain, seemed to be a hopeless task, the states-general were content to yield. Anne complimented them by fixing upon their city of Utrecht for the place of ostensible negotiation, while the substance of the treaty was settled without their advice or interference. To their barrier such additions were made as gave them, when coupled with the former grant, the power of garrisoning the principal towns in the Austrian Netherlands; and they reverted to a state of peace, in which they long continued. In 1718, they joined the king of Great-Britain and other princes in a league against Spain; but they rather gave their name than any effective strength to the confederacy. They concurred with George II. in the alliance which accompanied the treaty of Seville; but, when that prince unnecessarily embarked in the continental war, in 1742, they did not think themselves bound to co-operate with him, alleging that he had not been attacked. As their commerce flourished during the war, they wished to secure the advantages of neutrality: yet, when their barrier was seriously endangered, they complied with the king's importunate solicitations, and sent their troops into the field. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, they saved their barrier: and their joy at the return of peace may easily be conceived. When a new war broke out, in 1755, they studiously avoided all concern in it; and, on the rupture with the American colonies, they were more inclined to assist the revoltors than to support the British government. The pensionary, van Berkel, without regard to the authority of the stadtholder, framed a commercial compact with the colonial leaders, whom his countrymen supplied even with naval and military stores. Of the war which the Dutch thus provoked, we have already stated the chief incidents. They did not suffer that extent of mischief which, if Great-Britain had not been assailed by a formidable league, would certainly have been inflicted upon them for their ingratitude and treachery; and, by the treaty of 1783, they procured a restitution of every conquest except their oriental settlement of Negapatam. In the following year, a dispute occurred between the states and the emperor Joseph, on account of a design he had entertained of opening the Schelde for the benefit of his Netherland provinces; and preparations for war were made on both sides; but France and Prussia interposed as negotiators, and succeeded in effecting a reconciliation.

A factious and republican spirit at this time prevailed in the provinces. Encouraged by the success of his American friends, van Berkel

resolved to make such attacks upon the authority of the prince of Orange, as would, if successful, turn the scale of power in favor of republicanism. He accused the stadtholder of having injured the interest of his country, by favoring the English in the late war; and also imputed to him the most arbitrary views and intentions. The prince's friends, on the other hand, inveighed against the unconstitutional views and dangerous designs of the pensionary and his associates; and, in 1786, hostilities arose from the animosity of the two parties. The neighbouring powers did not view this contest with indifference. Louis XVI., according to the usual policy of the French court, promised to assist the stadtholder's adversaries; while Great-Britain and Prussia expressed their readiness to support the prince against all the encroachments of faction. By the contrivance of the English ambassador, the princess of Orange, who was the sister of the Prussian monarch, was stopped in a journey by a party of republicans; and this trifling insult served to accelerate the determination of that prince, who, having in vain demanded a satisfactory apology, sent 18,000 men to assault the Dutch capital. The zeal of Louis being cooled by the consideration of his pecuniary embarrassments, no troops were sent from France into Holland; and the Prussians, therefore, found little difficulty in overpowering the prince's opponents, who, trusting to the arrival of a French army, did not make those defensive dispositions which the crisis required. Amsterdam was quickly taken by storm: van Berkeland his chief friends were incapacitated from all public functions; and the stadtholder was gratified with new prerogatives.

The resentment which the defeated party felt on this occasion, tended to facilitate to the French the task of subduing the country. Of the rapid success of the revolutionary arms, in 1795, the reader has been already informed. The vassalage of the Batavian republic, under its arrogant conquerors, continued to the peace of Amiens; and, after a short interval of independence, its subjection was renewed in 1803. Even the royal title, with which it was for some years outwardly honored by its Gallic masters, did not confer dignity on a servile nation. This oppressed community, however, found, in the course of events, an opportunity of emerging from thralldom, and of re-uniting its fate with that of the Belgians.

William Frederic Louis, king of the Netherlands, duke of Luxemburg, and prince of Orange-Nassau, was born on the 24th of August, 1772, and married, in 1791, to Frederica Sophia Wilhelmina, sister to Frederic William III. king of Prussia; by whom he has issue,

1. William Frederic George, born in December, 1792, who married, in 1816, the Russian princess Maria.

2. William Frederic Charles, born in February, 1797.

3. Wilhelmina Frederica Paulina, born in March, 1800.

GERMANY.

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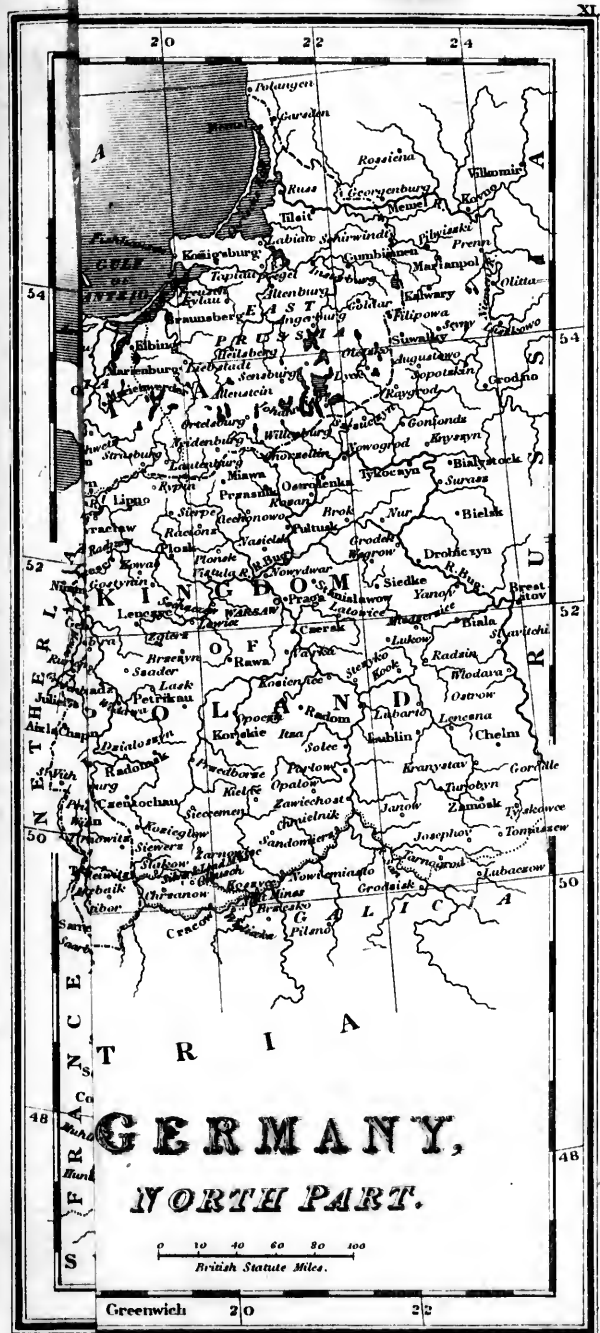
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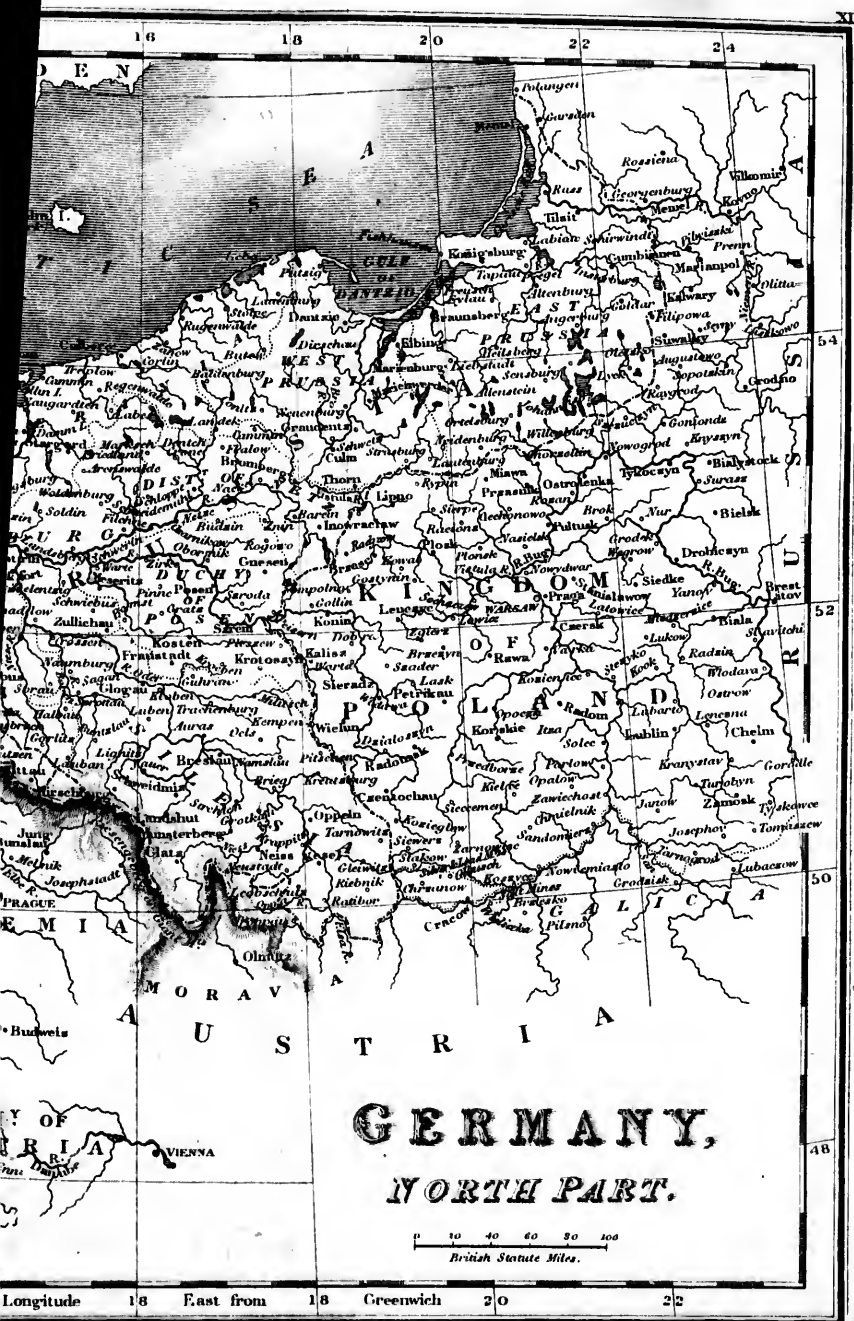
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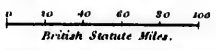






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Map by I. Newman & the other Proprietors.

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Gaul; and the word Germany itself may be considered as modern. Many fanciful derivations have been given of it; the most probable is, that it is compounded of *Ger-Man*, which, in the Teutonic language, signifies a warlike man. The Germans were called by various other names, such as *Alleimanni*, *Tentones*; which last appears to have been their most ancient designation; and even the present natives call their country *Teutschland*.

BOUNDARIES.] Germany is bounded on the north by the German ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic; on the east by Prussia, Galitzia, and Hungary; on the south by the Adriatic Sea, Italy, and Switzerland; and on the west by the kingdom of the Netherlands and France.

DIVISIONS.] Germany was formerly divided into the Upper or Southern, and the Lower or Northern. Maximilian I. 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 must confine ourselves to nine of those divisions. Of these, three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the south. The first are those of Upper and Lower Saxony, and Westphalia. The middle circles are the Upper and Lower Rhine, and Franconia; and those of the south are Swabia, Bavaria, and Austria. As these circles, notwithstanding the new arrangements of the German confederacy, still serve for geographical divisions, we shall here retain them: but, as a specification of every petty state or principality would be very unnecessary, it will be sufficient to enumerate those which were thought worthy of distinct notice in the acts of the congress of Vienna.

The circle of Upper Saxony contains 31,500 square miles, and is chiefly divided between the kings of Prussia and Saxony. To reward the anti-Gallican zeal displayed by the former potentate, the congress transferred to him the duchy of Saxony (properly so called), the two divisions of Lusatia, and the county of Heuneberg (in the circle of Franconia), out of the spoils of the latter prince, whose apparent attachment to Napoleon had excited the displeasure of the allies, and whose kingdom was therefore reduced to the margravate of Meissen and other territories, extending from Leipsic to the frontiers of Bohemia. To the grand duke of Weimar, and the dukes of Saxe-Gotha, Coburg, Meinungen, and Hildburghausen, their former territories were allowed, with small additions to some of them, under the general appellation of the Saxon principality. Other princes, who have votes in the new diet, and whose territories are in this circle, are those of Anhalt-Dessau, Bernburg, and Coethen, the two princes of Schwartzburg, and two of the Reuss family.

Lower-Saxony comprehends 17,950 square miles, and includes the kingdom of Hanover, the duchies of Holstein, Brunswick-Wolfenbuttel, Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Strelitz, the free cities of Hamburg, Lubeck, and Bremen, with the principality of Halberstadt and other Prussian territories.

In the circle of Westphalia, which embraces an extent of 22,350 square miles, the duchy of Cleves, the county of Mark, the former bishoprics of Munster and Paderborn, the grand duchy of Berg, and other considerable tracts, belong to the king of Prussia, whose subjects in these provinces are computed at one half of a million. East-Friseland, which is now a Hanoverian dependency, the principality of Osnabruck, and the duchy of Oldenburg, are also in this circle; and the duke of

Nassau, and two princes of the Lippe family, derive from their Westphalian possessions the privilege of voting.

The circles of the Upper and Lower Rhine contain, respectively, 8500 and 7600 square miles. In the former division we find the dominions of the Hessian princes, one of whom, during the sway of Napoleon, enjoyed the title of elector of Hesse-Cassel; also those of the Nassau family, the principality of Waldeck, the free city of Franckfort, and the duchy of Deux-Ponts, a recent appendage to Bavaria. To the Lower Rhine belong the late archiepiscopal electorates of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne, now possessed by the king of Prussia; and also the Palatinate of the Rhine, a dependency partly of Baden and partly of the Bavarian realm, with which the principality of Aschaffenburg is also incorporated.

The dimensions of Franconia scarcely exceed 8,350 square miles. This circle is in a great measure divided between the kings of Bavaria and Prussia.—In Swabia, which contains 11,750 square miles, the kingdom of Wurtemberg is comprehended: the grand duchy of Baden is within its boundaries; as are also the territories of the prince of Lichtenstein, and of two princes of the Hohenzollern family, to whom votes in the diet are allowed.

It may readily be supposed, that the greater part of the Bavarian circle appertains to the king. About 17,500 square miles form its admeasurement. The largest circle is that of Austria, to which 44,500 square miles are assigned. It extends from the frontiers of Hungary to the Alpine boundaries of Italy.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The southern part of Germany is mountainous and hilly; the northern presents wide sandy plains, with few hills. On the eastern side are the most extended plains, and the greatest chains of mountains.

MOUNTAINS.] The Vogesian ridge, commencing in the Sundgan, and extending into the Lower Palatinate,—the Schwartz-Wald in Swabia,—the Alps on the borders of Switzerland and Italy,—Kalenberg in Austria,—the Erzgebirge (or Mountains of Ore) between Saxony and Bohemia,—the Fichtelberg in Franconia,—and the Hartz in Lower Saxony,—are among the chief mountains of Germany. Many other elevated tracts 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 divided into woods, which bear particular names. Most of the woods consist of pine, fir, oak, and beech. There are many 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 deer (of which there are seven or eight sorts), hares, foxes, and boars. Some of the woods also abound so much 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 any inferior ones, are those of Constance and Bregentz. Beside these, are the Chiem-see, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Zirnitz or Cirknitz-see, in the duchy of Carniola, whose waters run off, and return, in an irregular and extraordinary manner.

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RIVERS.] No country can boast a greater variety of rivers than Germany. At their head stands the Danube or Donau, so called from the swiftness of the current, and the course of which is computed at 1500 miles. It rises at Donaschingen in Swabia, becomes navigable at Ulm, receives a multitude of tributary streams (but certainly not 120, as some have asserted), and discharges itself by five mouths into the Euxine, with such rapidity, that its current is distinguishable in the sea for several miles. Another great river in Germany is the Rhine, the rise and progress of which will be noticed in the account of Switzerland. The origin of the Elbe is found in the Giant-mountains of Silesia: it is formed by two rivulets, which unite at Gendorff. It flows through Saxony, chiefly in a north-west direction, and enters the North-sea near Ritzebüttel. The Weser consists of the united Werra and Fulda, and principally waters the Hanoverian territories. The Oder rises out of a rock in a forest, on the frontiers of Moravia, begins to be navigated at Ratibor, runs through the whole extent of Silesia, also waters Brandenburg and Pomerania, contributes to the formation of the lake of Damm near Stettin, and pours itself into the Baltic by three channels.

MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS.] Germany is said to contain more of these than all Europe beside. The Spa waters, and those of Seltzer and Pyrmont, are well known. Those of Aix-la-Chapelle are still more celebrated. 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 Ems, Wisbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, are reported to be extremely efficacious in many diseases. The mineral springs at the last-mentioned place are said to intoxicate as soon as wine, and therefore they are enclosed. The baths of Carlsbad and Badesda have been described and recommended by many eminent physicians, and used with great success. A part, however, of the salutary virtue ascribed to these waters may be attributed to the exercises and amusements of the patients, and the number and variety of the company which crowd to them from all parts of Europe; many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for diversion and social enjoyment.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abounds in both. Many parts of this country contain mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Even mines of gold have been discovered in the circle of Austria. Salt-petre, salt-mines, and salt-pits, are found in Austria, Bavaria, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethysts, jaspers, sapphires, agates, alabasters, several sorts of pearl, turquois stones, and the finest of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greatest princes and virtuosi. In Bavaria, and the Tyrol, are quarries of curious marble, slate, chalk, ochre, red lead, alum, and bitumen, beside other fossils. Several of the German circles possess 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; toward the south it is more temperate. The seasons vary as

much as the soil: in the southern and western parts they are more regular than in those that lie near the sea, or which abound with lakes and rivers.

The soil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture; and therefore in many places it is bare and sterile, though in others it is extremely fertile. A greater attention, however, is now given to agriculture in this country, and various improvements have been made in 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; and they differ from those of other countries in a peculiar lightness, and detersive qualities, more efficacious in some diseases than any medicine.

ANIMALS.] Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horses; but the horses, oxen, and sheep, are not comparable to those of England, probably from the want of skill in feeding and rearing them.

The German wild boars differ in color 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 Westmorland, for flavor and grain. The *glutton* of this country 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 it feeds so ravenously, that it falls into a kind of torpid state, and, not being able to move, is killed by the huntsmen; but, though both boars and wolves will kill it in that condition, they will not eat it. The color of this animal is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine larks, and a great variety of singing birds, which are sent to all parts of Europe.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] 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 Blankenburg, 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 statement, however, has been disputed by some critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blankenburg, 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 great cask 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. This cask has now lost its pre-eminence, by the superiority of the vessels or vats used by some of the brewers of London.

In almost every court of Germany, a cabinet of curiosities, artificial, and natural, ancient and modern, may be seen. That of Vienna is particularly admired. The city itself, indeed, 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, Polanders, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper

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habits. The imperial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its ancient manuscripts. It contains 300,000 printed volumes, among which are a great number of rare specimens of early typography; and the manuscripts form 12,000 volumes, including many compositions in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Armenian, Coptic, and Chinese; but the antiquity of some of the number may be doubted, particularly a New Testament in Greek, said to have been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple.

POPULATION.] The population of the German empire, before the temporary loss of the territory on the left side of the Rhine, was generally estimated at between 26 and 27 millions. By that cession, Germany lost about three millions and a half of inhabitants; but, by the humiliation of the French, and the treaties to which they were constrained to agree, in 1815, the territorial spoils of the empire were restored. During the time of Gallic occupancy, the population suffered from the effect of the conscription; yet it did not seem materially to decline even in those provinces, and it increased so much in the rest of Germany, that, in a document presented to the princes and plenipotentiaries at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1818, the whole population is computed at more than thirty millions; in which calculation, as in the former, Bohemia and Moravia (but not Hungary and its dependencies) are included.

The document to which we have referred thus distributes and appor- tions the amount of the people in the different states:

Austria	9,482,227
Prussia (without reckoning the king's share of Poland)	7,923,439
Bavaria	3,560,000
Saxony	1,200,000
Hanover	1,305,551
Wurtemberg	1,395,462
Baden	1,000,000
Electorate of Hesse	540,000
Grand Duchy of Hesse	619,500
Holstein	360,000
Luxemburg	214,058
Brunswick-Wolfenbittel	209,600
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	358,000
Nassau	302,769
Saxe-Weimar	201,000
— Gotha	185,682
— Coburg	80,012
— Meinungen	54,400
— Hildburghausen	29,706
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	71,769
Oldenburg	217,769
Anhalt-Dessau	52,947
— Bernburg	37,049
— Cœthen	32,454
Schwartzburg-Sondershausen	45,117
— Rudelstadt	53,937
Hohenzollern-Fleckingen	14,500
Lichtenstein	5,546
Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen	35,360
Waldeck	51,877

Reuss, the elder branch	22,255
-----the younger	52,205
Schaumburg-Lippe	24,000
Lippe-Detmold	69,063
Hesse-Homburg	20,000
City of Lubeck	40,650
----- Bremen	48,500
----- Hamburg	129,800

In this enumeration, Frankfort on the Maine is omitted, to which we may assign, on probable grounds, a population of 43,000. With this addition, the aggregate will be found to amount to 30,089,201. Many of these calculations are apparently too high, and, indeed, the enumeration cannot be depended upon; and, perhaps, notwithstanding the considerable increase of population from the year 1818 to 1826, the present amount is under three millions.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Germans in their persons are tall, fair, and strongly framed. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and some of them, especially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and shape, so bewitching in some other countries.

Both men and women used to affect rich dresses; and the men of a higher class were excessively fond of gold and silver lace, especially if they were in the army: but that pomposity is now declining. 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 in modes which are inconceivably fantastic; but in this respect they are gradually reforming. As to the peasants and laborers, they dress, as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, convenience, and circumstances. The most unhappy part of the German community 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 vigor and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But, when commanded by able generals, they have performed great exploits, both against the Turks and the French.

Industry, application, and perseverance, are the great characteristics of the German nation, especially the mechanical part of it. Many of their works of art reflect credit on their talents. They excel in the manufacture of clocks and watches: they cut, polish, and arrange jewels with admirable skill: they practise all kinds of turnery with neatness and dexterity; their porcelain is admired for beauty of color, richness of gilding, and elegance of form; and they are far from being despicable as draughtsmen, painters, sculptors, and architects.

The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjustly, in consequence of the great plenty of wine and provisions of every kind; but such excesses are now less common. At the greatest tables, though the guests drink freely at dinner,

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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 honor, that a sharper, in other countries, especially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, than if he should declare himself of any other nation. All the sons of a nobleman inherit their father's title; a circumstance which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogists of that country. The German husbands are not 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. Many of the nobility, having no other hereditary estate than a high-sounding title, readily enter into the army. Their fondness for title is attended with other inconveniences. Some men of rank and 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; but this prejudice is daily losing its influence.

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, or partake of social amusements. As to their field diversions, beside their favorite one of hunting, they have bull and bear baiting. 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 tigers, swans, scallop-shells, &c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with lace 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, ribands, 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.

Among other entertainments, those of the drama are in great vogue among the Germans; and some of their chief towns exhibit very able performers. When theatrical diversions are discontinued on days of particular sanctity, a species of exhibition, called a *Tableau*, is allowed; the nature of which is to represent, by groups of living figures, with a judicious introduction of light and shade, the compositions of celebrated sculptors or painters. This amusement is more prevalent in the higher circles than among the common people, who do not feel themselves interested in this tranquil display of motionless attitudes.

[CHIEF TOWNS, FORTS, AND EDIFICES.] This is a copious head in all countries, but more particularly so in Germany, on account of the numerous independent states which it contains.

TOWNS IN THE AUSTRIAN DIVISION OF GERMANY.

Vienna, being the metropolis of the dominions of that prince whose family so long held the imperial supremacy, is generally considered as the capital of Germany. It is situated in Lower-Austria, on that spot where a branch of the Danube is joined by the little river *Wien*, which is also the German name of the city itself. On this spot the Romans

had a legionary station. The town which they built fell successively into the hands of the Goths and the Huns; and it was afterwards annexed to the dominions of Charlemagne. Under the auspices of the margraves and dukes of Austria, the city was extended and improved, but by slow degrees. It now consists of two parts, perfectly distinct. The interior division is surrounded by walls, bastions, and a dry fosse; and the other portion is included within lines of circumvallation, having barriers at all the openings. Of the former, the circumference is about three miles, and that of the latter twelve. The imperial castle or palace is a structure of extraordinary magnitude, rather than of pre-eminent splendor. It is composed of various buildings, which, without aptly harmonising to the eye of taste, contain large and commodious apartments, richly decorated and splendidly furnished. Connected with it is a riding-school, in which, during the last congress, a kind of tournament was performed by twenty-four knights, all of noble birth, in a style of the most imposing magnificence, and in a manner that served to exemplify the chivalrous spirit which had subverted the domination of the Corsican tyrant. Another imperial palace is that of Belvedere, erected by prince Eugene for his summer residence, in which are 1350 pictures of the Italian, German, and Flemish schools,—one of the finest collections in Europe. Many of the mansions of the nobles also embellish the city; and some of their cabinets abound with curious works of art, both ancient and modern. The other remarkable buildings are, the archiepiscopal cathedral of St. Stephen, distinguished by its beautiful steeple and its roof of mosaic work; the fine church of the Trinity, several monastic houses and chapels, the edifice belonging to the university, the town-house, the imperial chancery, the mint, bank, and arsenal. In the old town, the streets are narrow, and, from the height of the houses, not sufficiently ventilated; but, in the suburbs, a more open plan of building has been followed, the houses are constructed in a better style, gardens and places of recreation are pleasingly intermingled with the habitations, and ample space is afforded to the industry of artificers and manufacturers. Between the old and new towns, an extensive area is kept entirely free from buildings; but, though the air diffused over this space contributes to the preservation of health, Vienna is not a salubrious abode; for it is affirmed by a medical writer (Dr. Neale,) that, out of a population of 230,000, the annual mortality of that city is in the proportion of one to fifteen, whereas in London it is only one in thirty. It is not from a want of able physicians that the mortality is so great; for, since the empress Maria Theresa reformed by her institutions the medical education and practice in the Austrian dominions, many eminent men have exercised the healing art in the capital; and, in several well-conducted hospitals, the poor, by seasonable relief, are frequently rescued from the dangerous effects of indisposition.

With regard to the trade and manufactures of Vienna, Mr. Rœrdanz observes, that the city has become a very considerable *entrepôt*, and may be deemed a rendezvous of various nations for the purposes of commerce. The most important branch of its trade is that which is carried on with the subjects of the Porte, who receive glass and hardware, various kinds of cloth, and many other articles, in return for cotton, silk, goats'-hair, leather, coffee, fruit, and the wines of Greece. The chief manufactures are those of plate glass, porcelain, cutlery, gold and silver lace, musical instruments (particularly those which imitate French horns), and mills for a variety of operations. In the unsettled

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state of the continent, the silk manufacture was so little encouraged, that 6000 looms, which had been fully employed at Vienna before the French revolution, were reduced to a very small number; but that branch of art has since revived.

The capital of Upper-Austria is Linz, where the states of the province assemble, but with little influence in the direction of public affairs. It is situated at the conflux of the Traun with the Danube; has good fortifications, and a considerable garrison; and employs nearly 20,000 persons in the woollen and other manufactures.

TOWNS IN GERMANY SUBJECT TO THE KING OF PRUSSIA.

BERLIN, the capital of the electorate of Brandenburg, and the seat of the Prussian government, is an aggregate of five towns, composing one of the finest cities in Europe. The first was founded by the margrave Albert in 1163, and the last in 1688, by the elector Frederic III. The streets in general are broad and regular, and the houses either built of stone, or stuccoed so as to have the appearance of it. Palaces, churches, and other public buildings, are so dispersed as to prevent too continued an uniformity, while they seem to be parts of one great plan. The Spree, which is navigable, flows quite through the city, forming, by a division of its stream, an island on which the second town of the series is situated. In this part stands the chief mansion of royalty, called the castle,—a magnificent edifice, consisting of four courts. It was erected at different times, and has not long been completed. The round tower is still shown as a part of the original building. The entrance resembles the triumphal arch of Severus; and the apartments are finely adorned and superbly furnished. Near this structure is a stately church, which was opened for the Calvinists in 1750. The third town exhibits the palace of the princes of Prussia, a splendid and well-stocked arsenal, and various public offices. In the fourth part of the city, the former palace of prince Henry, now the seat of the university, attracts admiration; and, in the same division, the principal catholic church, the building appropriated to the royal academy of sciences, and the opera-house, also excite particular notice and attention. The fifth town, which is the most spacious, contains the great edifice assigned to the courts of judicature, several fine churches and palaces, large public schools, and commodious manufactories. In a square belonging to this portion, are five statues of celebrated generals, namely, Schwerin, Ziethen, Keith, Seidlitz, and Winterfeld; that of Ziethen is the most striking and elegant. The city is surrounded by a slight wall and by palisades, and has fifteen gates, one of which, resembling the Propylæum of Athens, is a species of colonnade, beautifully embellished, terminating a handsome street, and bordering on a well-wooded park, which was formerly enclosed for the chase, but is now rendered subservient to the general health and amusement of the citizens. The population is said to exceed 175,000. It is not a place of great trade, though it is the seat of a commercial company, in which the king has the largest share. The chief manufactures are those of porcelain, woollen cloth, silk, linen, cotton, lace, jewelry, and hard-ware.

Potsdam is a well-built town, situated on the Havel, at the distance of thirteen miles from Berlin, containing about 33,000 inhabitants. It was the favorite abode of Frederic III., who, after the peace of Huberts-

burg, built a palace in this town, combining elegance and beauty with grandeur and magnificence. Some of its churches, the town-house, and many of the private houses, are handsome buildings; but it has so few manufactures and so little trade, that it has been called "a collection of fine houses and poor citizens." Near the town is the royal mansion of Sans-Souci, which is only of the height of one story, but is built with skill and judgment, fitted up with admirable taste, and adorned with beautiful paintings.

A more flourishing town is Frankfort on the Oder, which carries on a considerable trade with Hamburg, the Baltic, Silesia, and Poland. It has three annual fairs, which are thronged with commercial agents. It is a large and handsome town; and the people appear to live in a state of competence and comfort.

Stettin, being favorably situated for commerce, supplies Brandenburg and the neighbouring territories with many valuable articles of foreign produce; and its own manufactures are far from being inconsiderable. Literature is, at the same time, promoted among the inhabitants by a royal college and some well-conducted schools; and it may be added, to the credit of the opulent Pomeranians, that the institutions for the poor are numerous and liberal.—Stralsund, the late capital of Swedish Pomerania, has a large and secure harbour, and is a place of some strength; but its commerce is inconsiderable, notwithstanding its advantageous situation; and the town contains nothing particularly striking or interesting.

Magdeburg, like Stettin, is well fortified; and its trade, by the medium of the Elbe, is very considerable. The public structures have an air of grandeur; and the other parts of the city are well built. The church of St. Maurice, which escaped the havoc of the year 1631 (when many thousands of the inhabitants were massacred by the brutal fury of the imperialists, and the greater part of the town was destroyed), is the most admired of all the Lutheran places of worship. The hall assigned for the meetings of the provincial states, the town-house, the exchange, and that castle which is appropriated to some public offices, contribute to adorn and dignify the town. Various manufactures, particularly those which are connected with clothing, are carried on by a considerable proportion of the inhabitants, whose number is supposed to exceed 31,000.

Cologne is a large city, if we regard its circumference, which extends almost to seven miles: but a considerable part of the included space is laid out in gardens and vineyards. The view of it, at some distance, is grand and imposing. "Its fortifications in the form of a crescent upon the left bank of the Rhine (says a late tourist), its lengthened quay, and its impressive assemblage of towers and spires, fix the attention and gratify the beholder." But, in traversing the streets, the disappointment is severe. Melancholy traces of decay are visible in almost every part. "There are one hundred edifices (says the same writer) appropriated to public worship; but there is hardly a single dwelling to be found in a state of complete repair." The cathedral is a vast and magnificent edifice; but, though its foundation is attributed to the thirteenth century, it is still unfinished. It is said, that the population, in 1802, reached the number of 39,000; but the present amount is supposed to be far less considerable. Few places, even in the poorest countries, have so many beggars in proportion to the mass of the community; for it is affirmed, that the mendicants who infest the narrow and gloomy streets amount to 12,000, notwithstanding the existence of many esta-

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blishments in the town for the relief of the poor. Some manufactures are carried on, but not with great spirit; and the people do not entirely neglect the interests of commerce; for they send wine, timber, slates, and earthen-ware, to the kingdom of the Netherlands.

Mentz is more famous for its strength and defensibility, than for its general beauty, or its commerce and manufactures. The cathedral, the palace and castle of the late elector, some of the monasteries, the buildings of the university, and the town-house, are among the most striking edifices; but the streets are narrow and irregular, and the houses in general are neither well-built, nor kept in a state of neatness. About 28,000 persons occupy this ancient city.

We mention Treves or Triers, not for its present dignity or importance, but because it was for many centuries the seat of an elector. Its antiquity is carried to an extravagant height by an absurd inscription upon the town-house, importing that it existed 1300 years before the foundation of Rome: but there is no doubt of its having been the early seat of a considerable community. It is pleasantly situated on the Moselle, amidst delightful vineyards; and it contains stately palaces, handsome churches, and the fine remains of conventual buildings.

Aix-la-Chapelle derives its denomination from its warm baths, and from a chapel built on the spot by Charlemagne. It was formerly regarded as the capital of the empire; and, until the year 1531, the emperors were crowned in this city. It abounded with monasteries, most of which have been suppressed. In several parts of the city, the houses are well-built, and some even aspire to elegance. In the collegiate church of St. Adelbert, the sword and other pretended reliques of the illustrious prince above-mentioned, and also many vestiges of pious fraud, are brought forward to gratify the curiosity or stimulate the devotion of strangers. The town flourishes in trade and manufactures, particularly those of woollen cloth and needles; and the population exceeds 28,000.

GERMAN TOWNS BELONGING TO THE KING OF BAVARIA.

MUNICH, the Bavarian capital, stands on the Iser. The houses are lofty, and the streets spacious, with canals in several of them. It is esteemed the most elegant city in Germany, and contains about 41,000 inhabitants. The royal mansion is a noble edifice, and is rendered still more interesting by its fine collection of paintings. The king has two other palaces at a short distance from the city; that of Nymphenburg, admired for its gardens, and that of Schlesheim.

Ratisbon, or Regensburg, where the diet of the empire used to assemble, is of considerable size, but of a dark and dull appearance. It is inhabited by 23,000 persons. It is remarkable for an ancient bridge of fifteen arches over the Danube, in length 350 yards.

Augsburg is the largest and most ancient city in Swabia. It is situated between the rivers Lech and Wertach, which unite in its environs, and flow to the Danube. It was once a place of great trade; and its present traffic is far from being inconsiderable. It has manufactories of cotton, paper, mirrors, and of various articles in gold and silver; and its traders are diligently employed in forwarding merchandise to and from Italy. The magistracy is divided between the catholics and protestants, who are now so concordant, that the students of both persuasions are taught in the same classes in the academy, the Lyceum, and the polytechnic school.

TOWNS IN THE KINGDOM OF SAXONY.

DRESDEN, the capital, is an object of general admiration. "Nature and art (says Dr. Neale), beauty and grandeur, are here united in forming one of the finest scenes to be found in any inland city of Europe.—In its local position, Dresden has greatly the advantage over Berlin, being situated in a fertile soil, on the banks of the Elbe, surrounded by precipitous hills, covered with vineyards and orchards, and enlivened with villas and farm-houses in a very picturesque manner." It is remarkable for its fortifications, palaces, churches, and charitable foundations, and is the school of Germany for sculpture, painting, enameling, and other ingenious arts. Three towns form the aggregate city, all adorned with architectural objects of attraction. The royal palace, which embellishes the old town, is a magnificent structure, but is more distinguished by its collection of pictures, library, and cabinet, than by its external beauty. In the opinion of many persons of taste, the most striking ornament of this city is the church which Augustus III. erected for the catholic worship. The form is oblong, with semicircular ends: the bell-tower is finely proportioned, and rises to an elevation of 450 feet: the roof is encompassed by a double balustrade, which supports sixty colossal statues of saints. To the body of the church are annexed four elegant chapels, with nine altars, over the chief of which the assumption of the Virgin Mary is beautifully represented by the genius of Mengs. The taste of decoration which prevails throughout, is chaste and imposing.

The trade of Dresden is very considerable, chiefly in the produce of the country. Among its principal manufactures are those of porcelain, glass, linen, and woollen; its dyed stuffs are in great request: and it has extensive founderies for bells and cannon. The population nearly amounts to 63,000.

Leipzig, in Upper Saxony, is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain on the Pleisse, and contains about 35,000 inhabitants. It has large and well-built suburbs, with handsome gardens. The fortifications seem rather calculated for the recreation of the inhabitants, than for defence. The streets are clean, commodious, and agreeable; and many of the houses are both lofty and elegant. Leipzig has long been distinguished for the liberty of conscience allowed to persons of different sentiments in religion. Here is an university, which is still very considerable, with six churches for the Lutherans (theirs being the established religion), one for the Calvinists, and a chapel in the castle for those of the Romish church. The academical library comprehends about 30,000 volumes. Here is also a library for the magistrates, consisting of about 36,000 volumes and near 2000 manuscripts; to which are added cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals, with many curiosities of art and nature. The exchange is an elegant building. Next to Hamburg, this is the chief commercial city in Germany. It suffered by the violence and rapacity of the French, who made it a seat of war in 1813: but it is gradually recovering itself from the shock. Its various manufactures flourish: its three fairs are still greatly frequented; and it has a more extensive trade in books than any other continental town.

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CHIEF TOWNS IN THE KINGDOMS OF HANOVER AND WURTEMBERG, THE GRAND DUCHY OF BADEN, AND THE PRINCIPALITY OF HESSE.

HANOVER is situated on the Leine, amidst productive gardens and pleasant villas. The old town boasts of the palace, and the chief public offices: but the new town is built in a better style: considered in conjunction, they contain about 20,000 inhabitants, who carry on a confined trade in linen and woollen articles of their own manufacture. A military school was established in this city by George III.; but its institutions for the dissemination of mental culture, tend more to promote the fame of the new kingdom.

Stutgard is a handsome town near the Necker, the seat of the king and states of Wurtemberg. It contains an academy of sciences, a military academy, and a library which is particularly rich in copies of the Scriptures, and in historical works. The inhabitants are about 22,000 in number; and their trade is not inconsiderable in wine, corn, and silken and woollen goods.

The seat of government, for the duchy of Baden, is at Carlsruhe, which was not founded before the year 1715. A hunting castle and a few wooden houses gave a beginning to the town, which, though in an unfinished state, is now well-built of stone, and is inhabited by about 11,500 persons. Two cities now belonging to the grand duke, Heidelberg and Mannheim, were successively the electoral capitals of the Palatinate, before that territory devolved to the Bavarian family. The former is evidently declining; but its university is still respectable, and it is not destitute of varied trade. Mannheim is a large and flourishing town, built with great neatness and regularity, near the conflux of the Necker with the Rhine.

Cassel, the seat of the elder branch of the house of Hesse, was for some years the capital of the Westphalian kingdom, which Bonaparté erected in favor of his brother Jerome. The inhabitants, whose number may be estimated at 21,500, reside in three towns, two of which exhibit the old and uncouth style of building, while the third has some pretensions to elegance. Few places of the same extent possess so many public buildings; of which the most remarkable are the various offices of government, the church of St. Martin, the college, or great school, the principal library, the arsenal, the parade square, the barracks, and the house of correction. Cassel has also a literary society, and an academy of painting and sculpture. Its trade is not very important; but it has manufactures of woollen cloth, linen, hats, and porcelain.

FREE CITIES OF THE GERMAN CONFEDERATION.

LUBECK, once the proud head of the Hanseatic confederacy, is now eclipsed by the commercial fame of Hamburg. To strangers the rooms are still shown, in which the directors of that far-famed league (noticed in our introduction) held their meetings. The town has some communication with the German ocean by means of flat-bottomed boats, through the rivers Steckenitz and Elbe: but its chief trade is carried on by the medium of the Baltic. One proof of its decline is the low rate at which even capital houses may be procured, while at Hamburg a paltry habitation bears a high rent. The government is in the

hands of the Lutherans, whose intolerant spirit, which injured the interest of the city, is now allayed by the increasing liberality of the times.

Frankfort, on the Maine, is situated in a spacious and fertile plain, on the borders of Franconia, with rising ground in the surrounding distance, and mountains toward the north-west. Sachsenhausen, on the opposite bank of the river, is considered as a part of the city; and both divisions are supposed to contain 60,000 inhabitants. The fortifications are regular, having ten bastions and various outworks: but they did not protect the town against the violence of the French revolutionists, who repeatedly plundered the magistrates and the inhabitants. It was the usual place of the imperial election and coronation; but that privilege is superseded by the new organisation of the Germanic body. Some of the streets are narrow and ill-built; while others are wide, furnished with good houses, and open into handsome squares. The two annual fairs are thronged with traders; and the place serves for a medium of beneficial traffic between the northern and southern parts of Germany.

Hamburg is the most flourishing commercial town in the whole extent of Germany. It exhibits a proud monument of the power of commerce, and strikingly exemplifies the advantages of freedom. It forms a republic within itself, governed by wise laws, and carefully providing for the comfort of the people. It is well fortified in the old style; and the walls are so thick as to afford room for carriages to pass upon them. It does not rival the magnificence of Berlin or the beauty of Dresden; yet, while most of the streets are narrow and winding, and the houses ill-built, wide and regular streets, ornamented with handsome houses, appear in various parts of the city; and some progress has been made in the improvement of its worst portions. Its situation on the Elbe, which is about three miles wide, and interspersed with cultivated islets,—the fertility of the soil in the environs,—the ramparts, which afford pleasing walks and rides, between avenues of fine lime-trees,—the hospitality of the inhabitants,—the number of public libraries, and the increasing variety of places of resort,—render it one of the most agreeable abodes for a stranger in the north of Germany. The most striking edifices are the town-house, the exchange, the arsenal, bank, and orphan-house. The principal church, being a massy Gothic structure, has an imposing aspect: but it is built of brick, and the lofty steeple (which, like the tower of Pisa, has declined from its perpendicular) is constructed of wood, sheathed with copper. Many charitable institutions reflect honor on this city. The Foundling Hospital, in particular, is well endowed, and judiciously conducted. To the great convenience of the poor, a bank has been long established for the loan of money upon pledges, at a very low rate of interest; and a public granary is kept up, from which, in times of scarcity, corn is sold at a moderate price. The trade of this city was greatly injured by the oppressive sway of the French; and the sugar refineries, and the manufacture of silken stuffs, were nearly ruined: but, for some years past, they have been gradually advancing to their former state. Commerce is promoted by the smallness of the imposts levied by the ruling power. Corn, yarn, linen, tin, copper, coined gold and silver, and books, are free from duty on importation; and all the manufactured articles of the city are exempt from duty on exportation. The population, even of this flourishing town, does perhaps not exceed 133,000.

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cluded from that part of the continent, occupied Heligoland, an island near the mouth of the Elbe, not however subject to the Hamburgers, but to the Danes. It is chiefly a mass of sand-stone, less than one mile long, and very narrow. The cliff has a plain at the top, on which is a village; and from this part a broad wooden stair-case leads to the beach on the opposite side, which is so far elevated above the high-water mark, as to afford a residence to adventurous fishermen and pilots. The inhabitants amount to about 2500. To the women the task of cultivating the poor soil, and other labors, are assigned. The island seems to be gradually crumbling away; but the people are not seriously alarmed at the process of decomposition. This small territory was ceded to Great-Britain at the pacification.

Bremen has a considerable trade by means of the Weser. It consists of two towns, both of which are fortified; but, for want of a harbour, the merchants are obliged to content themselves with the port of Vegesack, distant about thirteen miles from the city. The houses in general are well-built; and the public structures most worthy of notice are the cathedral, the town-house, and the exchange. While the Lutheran religion is predominant at Hamburg, Calvinism prevails at Bremen: but the rulers of both cities observe a system of toleration.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Germany has vast advantages, in point of commerce, from its situation in the heart of Europe, and its command of the navigation of great rivers. Its native materials for commerce, beside 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, wine, linen and woollen yarn, paper, ribands, silk and cotton stuffs, gold and silver lace, toys, turnery-ware in wood and 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, mirrors, hogs' bristles, beer, tartar, smalt, zaffer, Prussian blue, printers' ink, and many other articles.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes by Louis XIV., which obliged the French protestants to settle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite service to the manufactures of Germany. Its inhabitants now make velvet, silk, 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 pictorial decorations, have been long in great repute.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS.] Before the resignation of the imperial dignity of Germany by Francis II., on the 6th of August, 1806, almost every prince in the empire (and there were then nearly three hundred of them) was arbitrary with regard to the government of his own estates; but the whole body formed a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which was the emperor, whose power was not directorial, but executive: yet even that gave him vast influence. The empire was hereditary under the race of Charlemagne; but it afterward became elective. In the beginning, all the princes, nobility, and deputies of cities, enjoyed the privilege of voting; but at length the chief officers of the empire altered the mode of election in their own favor. In 1239, only seven electors were allowed and acknowledged; among whom the archbishops of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne,

were honored with the foremost rank, in compliment to their spiritual characters. Two were added in the seventeenth century; and, about the beginning of the nineteenth, in consequence of various secularisations, and other alterations which were made in the constitution of the empire, under the influence of France and Russia, the electors became ten in number, one ecclesiastical and nine secular princes.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, had for some centuries belonged to the house of Austria, as being the most powerful of the German princes; but, by French management, on the death of Charles VI., the elector of Bavaria was chosen to that dignity, and died, as it is supposed, heart-broken, after a short and comfortless reign. The power of the emperor was regulated by the capitulation he signed at his election; and the person who, in his lifetime, was chosen king of the Romans, succeeded, without a new election, to the empire. He could confer titles and enfranchisements upon cities and towns; but, as emperor, he could levy no taxes, nor make war or peace, without the consent of the diet. When that consent was obtained, every prince was bound to contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though, perhaps, he might espouse a different side from that of the diet. This formed 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, while he was fighting for it. The emperor claimed a precedence for his ambassadors in all Christian courts.

The ten princes who had the privilege of electing the emperor, were, at the time of the abolition of the Germanic constitution, the elector prince archbishop of Ratisbon (or Aschaffenburg), arch-chancellor of the empire—the king of Bohemia (the Austrian emperor), who was styled grand cup-bearer,—the king of Bavaria, who was grand sewer, or the officer who served out the feasts,—the king of Saxony, the great marshal,—the elector of Brandenburg (king of Prussia), arch-chamberlain,—the elector of Hanover (king of Great-Britain), arch-treasurer,—the elector of Saltzburg,—the king of Wurtemberg, arch-pantler,—the electors of Baden and Hesse.

It was necessary for the emperor, before he called a diet, to have the advice of those members; and, during the vacancy of the imperial throne, the Saxon and Bavarian princes had jurisdiction, the former over the northern, and the latter over the southern circles.

The diet was composed of the colleges of electors, princes, and imperial towns. The first consisted of the ten electors above enumerated, each of whom had a personal vote, termed by the German lawyers *votum virile*. The second college was divided into two classes—the proper princes of the empire, as dukes, margraves, landgraves, princes, and princely counts, who had each a personal vote, and the counts and lords of the empire, who were arranged in four colleges or benches, viz. the Wetteravian, Swabian, Franconian, and Westphalian, each of which had one vote, styled *votum curiatum*. Of this college Austria and Saltzburg had the direction by turns. The college of imperial cities consisted of deputies from those towns which were free republics under no particular sovereign, but immediately under the emperor and the empire.

The imperial chamber, and that of Vienna (better known by the name of the Aulic council), were the two supreme courts for determining the great causes of the empire, arising among its members. The former council consisted of fifty judges or assessors. The president and four of them were appointed by the emperor: each of the electors chose one,

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and the other princes and states the rest. This court was holden at Wetlar, but formerly met at Spire; and causes might be brought before it by appeal. The aulic council was originally only a financial court for the dominions of the house of Austria. As the power of that family increased, the jurisdiction of this council was extended upon the powers of the imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It consisted of a president, a vice-chancellor, a vice-president, and a certain number of aulic counsellors, of whom six were protestants, beside other officers; but the emperor, in fact, was master of the court. These courts followed the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Passau, and the civil law.

Beside these courts of justice, each of the nine circles had a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. He was in general one of the most powerful princes of the circle. In case of great public offences, after the votes of the diet had been collected, and sentence pronounced, the emperor, by his prerogative, committed the execution of it to a particular prince or princess, whose troops lived at free quarter upon the estates of the delinquent.

Every state which acted directly or indirectly against the fundamental laws of the empire, was subject to the punishment of the ban, or proscription, of the empire. The ban was of two kinds; the one privatory, the other provisional. The former consisted in depriving a prince or state of all rights, privileges, and dignities; the second in taking away the actual government of the states, and committing them to the care of some other, until it was otherwise ordered. But this sentence of proscription was not easily obtained, because it was difficult to unite all the orders of the empire in the same measure. The execution of it belonged to the director of the circle where the prince resided, and every feudal state of the empire was subject to it.

It may here be proper to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which frequently occurs in the German history—that of the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This was no other than a provision made by 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 was often disputed by other branches of the house of Austria, who were occasionally supported by France from political views, though the pragmatic sanction was strongly guaranteed by almost all the powers of Europe. The emperor Charles VII. elector of Bavaria, and Augustus, king of Poland, attempted to overthrow it, on the ground of their descent from the daughters of the emperor Joseph, elder brother to Charles VI. It was likewise repeatedly opposed by the court of Spain.

The cumbrous and intricate Germanic system received so rude a shock, in 1806, from the arbitrary policy of Bonaparté, that Francis II. disclaimed all future concern in the general government, and, renouncing that dignity which he had acquired by election, declared himself emperor of Austria. The act of confederation, imposed upon many of the German princes by the presumption of Napoleon, ordained, that the kings of Bavaria and Wurtemberg, the arch-chancellor or elector of Aschaffenburg, and the elector of Baden, should concur with other princely members of the empire in forming new arrangements of policy and war, under the protection of the sovereign of France. The king of Prussia endeavoured, but with little effect, to counteract this alarming confederacy by a similar association, in the north of Germany. Many acts of territorial spoliation were

allowed by the unprincipled author of the new treaty, for the gratification of his base dependents; and those princes who were not before so despotic as they were inclined to be, were encouraged to tyrannise over their subjects, in imitation of their *illustrious* patron. The king of Wurtemberg, whose authority, under the limitations affixed to it by a representative government, had been guaranteed, in 1771, by his Britannic majesty, disgraced himself by taking an immediate advantage of his new situation, and subverting the constitution of his country; and the king of Bavaria, who had obtained the Tyrol by the treaty of Presburg, annihilated in that province the privileges of the people.

After the success of the allies in the deliverance of Europe, a new organisation was given to the Germanic body. It was ordained by the congress of Vienna, in 1815, that the princes and free cities should be united in a perpetual confederation, the objects of which should be the maintenance of the interests and security of Germany, and the preservation of the independence and inviolability of the component states. All the members of the confederacy were declared to be equal in their rights, and were equally bound to the strict support of the union. Ordinary affairs were to be discussed and decided by a diet, in which the princes and free towns should vote by their plenipotentiaries, under the presidency of an Austrian minister. The votes on these occasions were to be only seventeen, each of the chief princes having one, and the other votes being given by three or four members collectively. When fundamental laws were to be enacted, or changes to be made in the existing laws of that description, or when the act of confederation was to be revised and examined, sixty-nine votes were to be given, the leading powers respectively having four, others three, some two, and some only one. In the ordinary assembly, questions were to be decided by a mere majority; but, in the other diet, nothing was to be determined without the assent of two-thirds of the number. All the states of the confederacy were required to defend or assist each other, in case of an attack or of danger; but no internal hostilities were allowed, as the diet would be armed with that authority which ought to preclude serious discord. One article in this compact is particularly memorable. The princes seemed willing to yield to the growing spirit of the people in the German states; and it was ostensibly agreed, that the members of the confederation should concur with their subjects in framing, with all convenient speed, a representative government, so far popular as to remove the charge or reproach of despotism. The grand duke of Baden and other princes have already complied with this stipulation; but the principal confederates have evinced a strong reluctance to such concessions.

REVENUES AND MILITARY FORCE.] Both the military force and revenue of the emperor, merely as the head of the Germanic league, were very insignificant. He had 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.* came into the imperial treasury. The extraordinary revenues levied on the different states were 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 was about 5000*l.*; and each state paid a certain number of these sums, according to the proportions for the different princes and states,

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In the same book were registered the contingents or number of troops to be raised by each state, when war was decreed by the diet. These, united, 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, were estimated, before the late changes, at almost seventeen millions sterling.

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS.]

The emperor of Germany affected to consider himself as successor to the emperors of Rome, and had long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit precedence on all public occasions among the powers of Europe. Austria, indeed, was only an archdukedom; nor had he, as the head of that house, a vote in the election of emperor, which was limited to Bohemia; but the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, with which he was invested as archduke, were very numerous; and paramount to all is his new 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 the imperial crown is seen. On the breast of the eagle is an escutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jerusalem, Arragon, Anjou, Gueldres, Brabant, and Bar. It would be useless 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, claim a right of instituting orders; but the emperors pretend that they are not admissible unless confirmed by them. The Austrian emperor, and the king of Spain, as descendants of the house of Burgundy, confer the order of the Golden Fleece. The empress dowager Eleonora, in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies or female knights, and the daughter of Charles VI. established the order of St. Theresa.

The Order of the Golden Fleece was instituted at Bruges, in 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, who were of the first families in the Low Countries. At present there are two branches of it; of 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." Conrad, 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. But, by their internal quarrels, they lost their power and possessions; and Albert, marquis of Brandenburg, grand-master of the order, on his abjuration of popery, abdicated the grand-mastership, subdued Prussia, and expelled all the papists who would not follow his example.

In 1690, John-George, elector of Saxony, and Frederic III. of Brandenburg, on terminating their disputes, established the Order of Sincerity, as a pledge and confirmation of their amity. The knights wear a

bracelet of gold; on one side are the names of the two princes, with this device, "*Amicitie sincere*;" on the other side are two armed hands, joined and placed on two swords, with two palm-branches crossed, with this motto, "*Unis pour jamais*."

The great order of Wurtemberg is that of the Chase, instituted in 1702. 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, "*Amicitie Virtutisque Pædus*."

In 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 Saltzburg, in 1701, instituted the order of St. Rupert, in honor of the founder and patron of the see which he held, who was also 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 considerable estimation. In 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.

In 1813, the emperor of Austria, with a view of promoting, by a sense of honor, the great contest in which he and his allies were engaged for the deliverance of the continent from the tyranny of France, introduced a new order, called the Iron Cross. The badge is of that figure and metal, an emblem of strength and fortitude.

RELIGION.] It is natural to suppose, and we are taught to believe, that a sense of religion prevailed in the earliest ages of the world. The idea of a great Creator of the universe and of mankind, must have offered itself even to rude and unenlightened minds; and reverential homage was the result of this suggestion. The purity of primitive worship was at length corrupted; superstition filled the weak mind with imaginary terrors; the sentiments of gratitude for existence and continued support, and the fear of offending an all-powerful Deity, produced a desire of acknowledging and propitiating a plurality of divine beings; and the grossness of idolatry was substituted for the refinement of spiritual adoration. When ages had thus passed in the observance of polytheism, an inspired legislator announced the will of God for the propagation of a correct system of religion, inculcating the unity of the divine essence, and combining strict morality with a pious belief of important and salutary doctrines. Such was the origin of the Mosaic dispensation, or the old covenant between God and man; but this system, which was not generally diffused over the world, was at length corrupted by human depravity; and a new covenant was established in the revered name of the Son of God. The progress of Christianity was long obstructed by the efforts of the pagan philosophers, and by the disinclination of the people to any religious change; and its votaries were even cruelly persecuted for presuming to entertain opinions repugnant or unfavorable to the established creed. This unnatural tyranny over the conscience was exercised, with some intermission, until the sovereignty of the Roman empire was acquired by Constantine the Great, whose encouragement of the new religion reflected honor on his character. It then became the general faith through the wide extent of the civilised world: but, though many of the Jews were converted to it, the great body of that nation remained obstinately deaf to the exhortations of the Christian preachers. As all establishments are liable to abuse and corruption, even the apostolic religion gradually declined into a mass of superstition; or, if that censure should be too harsh,

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it degenerated, under the management of the Romish pontiffs, into a compound of scriptural truth and traditional absurdity or error. The primitive simplicity of an apostle was no longer found in a bishop or any other dignity of the aggrandised church: arrogance, tyranny, rapacity, and the love of pleasure, disgraced the characters of those who ought to have pursued a course diametrically opposite: the essence of piety was obscured by a multitude of ceremonial observances: and religion was rather considered as a lucrative trade to a privileged class, than as a medium of spiritual comfort or of moral improvement.

In this state Christianity remained for many centuries, in Germany and other parts of Europe. Many of the German prelates possessed great temporal power, and tyrannised both over the princes and the people; and, while the secular clergy in general were negligent of their duties, the indolent monks rioted in the spoils of the public. The Bohemians were the first, within the boundaries of the empire, who entertained ideas of reformation. To the writings of Wickliffe, called the Morning Star of the Reformation, they were principally indebted for that light which shone upon their minds; and John Huss and Jerome of Prague became the fore-runners of Luther. When the council of Constance had triumphed over those unfortunate martyrs, the cause of reform languished for a century; and Martin Luther, a Saxon friar, then arose, whose disgust at the progress of religious corruption prompted him to unmask the deformities of popery; and, as his followers protested against those errors and abuses, they received the denomination of *protestants*. He exclaimed against the vicious lives of the clergy; and condemned the unnecessary multiplication of sacraments, the invocation of saints, the use of private masses, the adoration of images, the observance of traditional dogmas, the grant of indulgences, the refusal of the sacramental cup to the laity, and the restrictions of the perusal of those scriptures which were the only true guides in faith and morals: yet his reform was imperfect, because he did not explode the absurdity of transubstantiation, but merely qualified it by the quibble of *consubstantiation*. The Lutheran doctrines quickly made a great progress, amidst the flames of persecution. By the elector and the people of Saxony, the new system was eagerly adopted; and it spread over the north of Germany, in defiance of all the efforts of the Romanists. It was presented to the emperor Charles V. in a connected form, in 1530, under the title of the Confession of Augsburg: but that prince was not disposed to adopt or to recommend it. A new reformer soon after appeared, whose opinions created a schism in the protestant community. This was Calvin (or Le Chauve), a learned Frenchman, but of a stern and morose spirit, who endeavoured to explode all forms and ceremonies, to simplify the dress of the ecclesiastics, abolish the superiority of episcopal rank, and introduce into the church a republican or presbyterian government. As his plan was more accordant than that of Luther to the taste of the people of Brandenburg, it became the prevailing religion of that electorate: it was also received by the majority of the Hessians, and it found its way into the Lower Palatinate, as did also the Lutheran creed. Austria and Bavaria, in the mean time, continued to cherish the catholic worship with devout zeal: and even the Bohemians suffered the arrogant bigotry of their princes to subdue them into an acquiescence in the Romish establishment. After several wars, in which religious variance concurred with ambition and political animosity to inflame the minds of men, protestantism was solemnly confirmed in Germany by the treaty of

Westphalia, when it was agreed that the members of both churches should enjoy an equality of rights and privileges.

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; books are profusely multiplied in every department of literature; and thousands of theses and disputations are annually published; for no man can be a graduate in the universities, who has not published at least one disputation.

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, Von Swieten, Storch, Hoffmann, Ingenhousz, and Franck, have contributed greatly to the improvement of medicine; Ruvinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heister, of anatomy and surgery; Neumann, Zimmermann, and Margraff, of chemistry. In astronomy, Kepler deservedly obtained a great reputation; and Pufendorf 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 seventeenth century, and the beginning of the last, 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 style of writing also in German books, which at the time of the Reformation was pure and original, became ridiculous, by a very frequent 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, that compiling huge volumes, and loading them with quotations from all sorts of authors, and from all languages, formed the true test of great erudition. Their productions, therefore, became heavy and pedantic, and were consequently disregarded by more refined nations.

It was about the year 1730 that the prospects of literature in Germany began to brighten. Leibnitz and Wolff opened the way to a better philosophy than had before prevailed. Gottsched, an author and professor at Leipsic, who was greatly honored by Frederic III. king of Prussia, introduced a better taste of writing, by publishing a German grammar, and instituting a literary society for polishing the language, and 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 still 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, published sermons which would do credit to any country; but 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 and good sense.

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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 appeared at Hamburg, under the title of the *Patriot*, in which Dr. Thomas, bishop of Salisbury, was concerned, who was at that time chaplain to the British factory at Hamburg. Gellert, one of the most elegant German authors, and one of the most esteemed, greatly contributed to the improvement of their taste. His way of writing is particularly calculated to touch the heart, and to inspire sentiments of morality and piety. His fables and narrations, his letters, and his moral romances, are so much read in Germany, that even many of the ladies have them by heart. His comedies are also very popular, though they are rather too sentimental, and better adapted for the closet than for the stage.

Beside Gellert, — Hagedorn, Gleim, Kleist, Ramler, Voss, and others, have excelled in poetry. Schlegel, Croneg, Lessing, Wieland, Wiese, Goethe, Schiller, Kotzebue, and Iffland, have acquired fame by their dramatic productions. Schiller is also an able historian. 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 great pleasure by persons of other nations. The Messiah of Klopstock has raised him to a higher degree of fame than even Cessner, the Swiss painter, acquired by his *Death of Abel*, a well-known work of a poetic kind, written in animated prose.

Reimar, Zimmermann, Abt, Krestner, Segner, Lambert, Mayer, Kruger, and Sulger, distinguished themselves by their philosophical writings: and Masco, Bunau, Putter, Gatterer, Gebaur, and Schmidt, excelled in historical works. In the composition of novels and romances, the Germans are not equal to the English or the French. They do not appear to be so deeply acquainted with human nature, or so conversant in the art of exciting interest. Yet Kotzebue, Wieland, Augustus La-Fontaine, and Kramer, produced some pleasing works in this department; and, if Goethe's *Sorrows of Werter* had a better moral, the work would be more amusing and attractive, if not more pathetic.

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 Fabricius, Mosheim, Semler, and Brucker, are well known among us. Raphaelius, Michaelis, and Walch, are famous in sacred literature. Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiske, Ernesti, Reimar, Havercamp, Heyne, Wytttenbach, Wolff, and Brunck, have published some of the best editions of Greek and Latin classics.

In the cultivation of the fine arts, the Germans have not been deficient. Their country has produced some good painters, architects, sculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Printing, if invented in Holland, was soon after greatly improved in Germany. That country has likewise given birth to some excellent musical composers, — Handel, Bach, Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, and von Weber; 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, Griefswalde, Wittenberg, Tubingen, Iena, Helmstadt, Giessen, Rinteln, Altorf, Kiel, Halle, Göttingen, and Erlangen, are Lutheran; three, viz. Frankfurt on the Oder, Marburg, and Duisburg, are Calvinistic: twelve, viz. Prague, Vienna, Wurtzburg, Freyburg, Landshut, Dillingen, Olmutz, Gratz, Paderborn, Salzburg, Fulda, and Bamberg, are catholic; and two, Heidelberg and Erfort, mixed, or both catholic and protestant. Colleges, *gymnasias*, pedagogics, and Latin schools, are also dispersed over the country; and there are 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 *Naturæ Curiosæ*; the Academies of Sciences at Vienna, Berlin, Munich, Göttingen, Erfort, Leipsic, Duisburg, Giessen, and Hamburg. At Dresden and Nuremberg are academies for the fine arts; at Berlin a royal military academy; and at Augsburg is the Imperial Franciscan Academy of Fine Arts; to which we may add the Latin and German Societies at Iena. Of the public libraries, the most celebrated are those of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbittel, Hanover, Göttingen, Weimar, and Leipsic.

LANGUAGE.] The German language is derived from the Teutonic, which sprang from the 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.

The German Paternoster is as follows: *Unser Vater, der du bist im himmel, geheiligt werde dein nam; zuhonne dein reich; dein wille geschehe, wie im himmel also auch auf erden. Unser teglich brod gib uns heute; und vergib uns unsere schulden, als wir vergeben unsern schuldigern; und suchre uns nicht in versuchung; sondern erlase uns von dem bosen; den dein das reich, und die kraft, und die herrlichkeit, in ewigkeit. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.] Some 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 forcible pen of Tacitus. 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 when it continued in its full vigor. 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 all. At length, the Roman power, supported by art and policy, prevailed over a considerable part of Germany, and various portions of the country were provincialized. When the great 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 counts and margraves of that nation. In this state 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,

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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. His posterity inherited the whole or different parts of his dominions until the death of Louis III., in 911; at which time the different princes, resuming their original independence, rejected the Carlovingian line, and placed Conrad, duke of Franconia, on the throne. From that time, Germany was considered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their interest and arms, were called to 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 were 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 independent princes assumed the right of election; and those who were afterward 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 state or of the king's household. By degrees, as they lived near the royal person, and, like all other princes, had independent territories belonging to them, they increased their influence and authority; and, in the reign of Otho II., of the house of Saxony, in 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 rose upon the ruins of the emperor's supremacy, and of the popular jurisdiction. Otho I. having, in 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 granting investitures to bishops. Henry V., a weak and wicked prince, in 1122, surrendered the right of investiture and other powers, to the disgrace of the imperial dignity; but, when pope Benedict XII. had refused absoluteion 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 confirm elections. In 1438, Albert, arch-duke of Austria, was elected emperor; and that dignity continued in the male line of his family for three hundred years. One of his successors, Maximilian, married the heiress of Charles duke of Burgundy; and thus the dukedom, 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 before the year 1648, when the

treaty of Westphalia was concluded, 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 he was 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.

His brother, Ferdinand I., who in 1558 succeeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the address 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 favor of the queen of Hungary, on the death of Charles VI.

The reign of Maximilian II. was disturbed by internal commotions, and by an invasion from the Turks; but he died in peace in 1576. He was succeeded by his son Rodolph, who was involved in a war 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, in 1611, Matthias, under whom the Lutherans and Calvinists were so much divided among themselves as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The emperor's endeavours 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 hoped to subdue 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 so inconsiderate as to accept 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 that 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-Durlach, Christian duke of Brunswick, and count Mansfeld; 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 new 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 bred a set of heroes, such as the duke of Saxe-Weimar, Torstenson, Banier, and others, whose spirited efforts shook the Austrian power, till, under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among the powers at war, at Munster, in 1648.

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nand III., who died in 1657. Leopold, a prince of little merit or ability, was the next emperor. He had two great powers to contend with; France on one side, and the Turks on the other; and he was a loser in his wars with both. France took from him Alsace, and other territories on the frontiers 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 adventurer in arms, about the year 1697. Being one of the imperial generals, he 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 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, as he was very ill served by prince Louis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly retrieved 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 would 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 the duke of Anjou.

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, when 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 signal defeat from prince Eugene, in the battle of Peterwardein. They received another, of equal importance, from the same general, in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialists; and in the following year the peace of Passarowitz 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 British crown devolved to the house of Hanover; an event which gave him a decisive weight on the continent, by the connexions of George I. and II. with the empire. Charles was sensible of this, and behaved with such arrogance, that, in 1725, a breach ensued between him and George I., and so unsteady was the political system of 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 interest of Hanover was the main object of the British court, as that of the emperor was the establishment of the pragmatic sanction, in favor of his daughter, Maria Theresa, 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, allured by the prospect

of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquished his claims upon the Austrian succession.

The emperor, after this, had very ill success in a war 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 happened at that time to be pacific; and cardinal Fleury obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reason to expect. To pacify the German and other European princes, he gave his daughter in marriage to the duke of Lorraine, a prince who could bring no accession of power to the Austrian family. He died in 1740; and his favorite scheme must have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmness of the king of Great-Britain. His daughter's succession was strongly opposed. The young king of Prussia, with a powerful army, entered and conquered Silesia, which, he said, had been wrongfully wrested 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 was filled by the elector, 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 the most valuable part of the duchy of Silesia, by a formal treaty.

The youth, beauty, and sufferings of Maria Theresa, and the noble fortitude with which she bore her misfortunes, 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 favor. 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 rejected all accommodation, though advised to it by his Britannic majesty, her best and indeed only friend. This obstinacy gave a color for the invasion of Bohemia, under pretence of supporting the imperial dignity; but, though the Prussian monarch, on this occasion, 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 into Silesia.

In the beginning of the year 1745, the unfortunate emperor died; and the duke of Lorraine, then grand-duke of Tuscany, was chosen to succeed him, by the title of Francis I. This election strengthened the interest of his active and politic wife; but the ill success of the allies against the French and Bavarians in the Netherlands, and the loss of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded her operations 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 George II., disgusted at the ingratitude of the empress, thought proper to guaranty to him the possession of Silesia, as ceded by treaty. Frederick, soon after, pretended that he had discovered a secret convention which had been concluded by Maria Theresa with the empress of Russia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to strip him of his

dominions, and attacked the king's troops, and took possession of the king of Prussia's dominions, and continued in the discredit of the Aix-la-Chapelle, guaranteed to the empress coadjutor, Poland, who was fresh war was against the admajesty againmer difference parliament agduring the w fury than ever.

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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 adjusted under the mediation of his Britannic majesty, by which the king of Prussia acknowledged the duke of Lorraine as emperor. The war continued in the Low-Countries, not only to the disadvantage but to the discredit of the Austrians and Dutch, till it was finished by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 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 views of the Russian empress coinciding 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 excited in the empire, in 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 Frederic during the war, the flames of which were now rekindled with greater fury than ever.

His Prussian majesty now invaded Saxony, defeated the imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowositz, and forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almost impregvably fortified at Pirna; and the elector of Saxony again fled into Poland. After this, Frederic 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. His conduct, on this occasion, is scarcely to be paralleled in history. He rushed once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and triumphed over 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, as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were repelled at Colin by the Austrian general Daun, and obliged to raise the siege. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The imperialists, under count Daun, were formed into excellent troops; but they were defeated at the battle of Lissa, and the Prussians took Breslau, and obtained 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, by count Daun at Hoehkirchen, 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 which this compendium requires. 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 burthensome to Great-Britain. Great was the ingratitude of the Queen of Hungary 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 that they were his most formidable enemies. They advanced, under count Solतिकoff, in a body of 90,000 men, into Silesia. In this distress he acted with a courage and resolution that bordered upon despair; but was, at last defeated by the Russians, with a very severe loss, 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 toward peace were apparently shut up. He had lost many brave and able generals, beside those who were wounded and made prisoners. At Landshut, 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 III. 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, toward 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 in which the king of Prussia had ever been engaged: but it cost him 10,000 of his best troops, and was attended with no great consequences in his favor. New reinforcements which frequently arrived from Russia, the taking of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, seemed almost to have completed his ruin, when his great enemy, the empress of Russia, died in 1762. George II. had previously resigned his breath. The deaths of those illustrious personages were followed by important consequences. The ministers of George III. were solicitous to put an end to the war; and the new emperor of Russia recalled his armies. His Prussian majesty, however, was so weakened by his losses, that Maria Theresa probably would have completed his destruction, had it not been for the prudent reluctance of the other German princes to the annihilation of the house of Brandenburg. At first the queen rejected all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies: but the visible unwillingness of her generals to execute her orders, and the success of Frederic, at last prevailed upon her to agree to an armistice, which was soon followed by the treaty of Hubertsburg, in February, 1763.

On the death of Francis, in 1765, his son Joseph succeeded him. The new emperor had an active mind, and, though not of a warlike character, was encroaching and ambitious: yet, for some years, he exhibited an appearance of moderation, attending with zeal to the concerns of internal policy. The disorders of Poland at length attracted his notice; and he was easily persuaded by the Russian empress to join in the first partition of that defenceless country. After another interval of forbearance, he aimed at the seizure of a great portion of the Bavarian territories, on the decease of the elector without issue: and a war arose, in 1778, from his arrogant and unjustifiable pretensions: but the spirit of the Prussian monarch, whom Joseph was afraid to meet personally in

the field, cooled. He afterwards Schelde; but ever, to promote religious toleration, as being the rapacious age in lieu; and removed common people with an ease his rank. He solicited to a

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the field, cooled his ardor, and impelled him into a speedy pacification. He afterwards demanded of the Dutch the free navigation of the Schelde; but in this scheme 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; abolished the remains of servitude and villanage; fixed the fees of the rapacious agents of law at a moderate amount, granting them a pension in lieu; abolished the use of torture in his hereditary dominions, and removed many of the grievances under which the peasants and common people labored. He was a prince who treated 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 acquire knowledge.

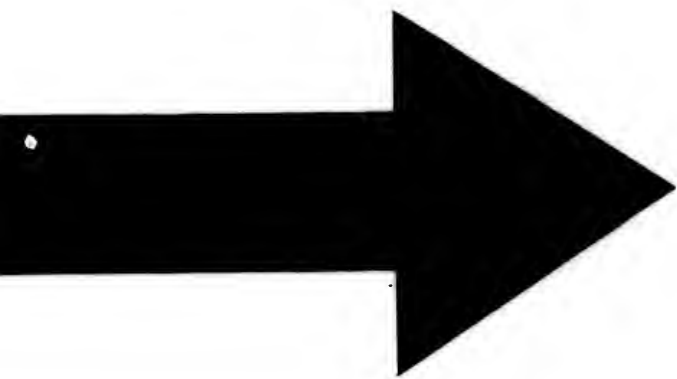
Peter-Leopold, grand-duke of Tuscany, succeeded his brother Joseph, in 1790, and engaged the public praise by repeated instances of moderation and solid principles. His former government of the Tuscan duchy, which was prudent and beneficent, showed that he aspired to more just reputation than can be acquired by the mere splendors of royalty. But his moderation did not prevent him from acting with that spirit which overawed the insurgents of the Netherlands, and the discontented Hungarians, into full submission.

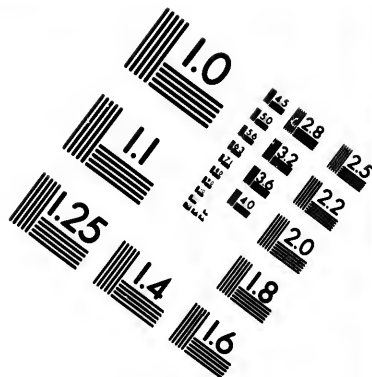
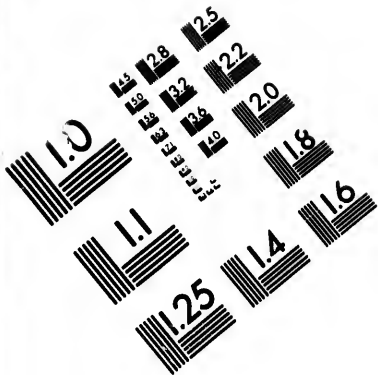
The French revolution now attracted the attention of the powers of Europe; and, in a conference at Pillnitz, the emperor, the king of Prussia, and the elector of Saxony, anxiously deliberated on the critical state of affairs, and discussed provisional schemes of attack. Leopold for some time was very irresolute, but at last seemed to be intent on war, when he died of a pleuritic fever on the 1st of March, 1792, in the forty-fifth year of his age.

Francis II. succeeded his father Leopold in the Austrian inheritance, and, on the 15th of July, became head of the empire, by an unanimous election. As he did not dissemble his hostile views against the democratic party in France, he exposed himself to a denunciation of war. His troops were occasionally successful; but, upon the whole, the war was very disastrous to him in point of territorial loss, and ruinous to his finances. During the short respite which succeeded the pacification of 1797, he sedulously attended to the arts of peace, without neglecting the renovation of the means of hostility. His government was, in general, moderate and equitable; but despotism sometimes led him into acts of tyranny; and his concern in the final partition of Poland proved that he was not invariably influenced by a due sense of justice.

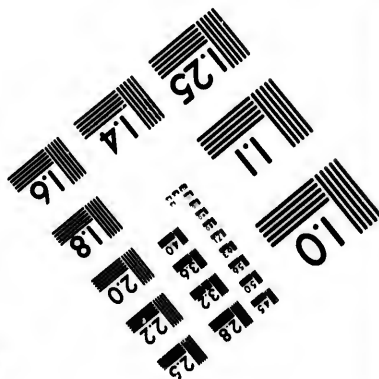
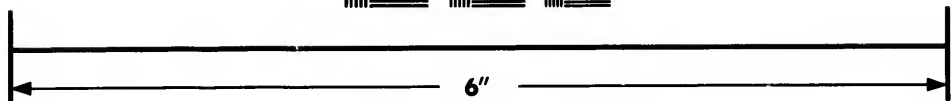
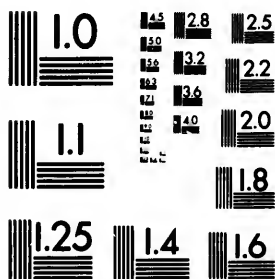
The next war in which the emperor engaged was short, but sanguinary. As the most important incidents of that and the preceding war have been narrated in our sketch of the history of France, it is unnecessary to give a repetition of statement. He did not lose much by the treaty of Luneville, which was chiefly a confirmation of that of Campo-Formio. He was still a very powerful prince, and was still regarded by the continental powers as one who would give a future check to the wanton encroachments of Napoleon. Yet he was at that time so weary of war, that he made little opposition to the arbitrary dictates of the tyrant, in 1802, in the settlement of the affairs of Germany. He was jealous of the aggrandisement of Prussia and Bavaria on that occasion, but was disposed to be content, when his brother Ferdinand was in some degree favored. When he had remained for several years a quiet spectator of the conduct of France, he was roused into a new war by the zeal of Mr. Pitt, whom he







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even suffered to recommend general Mack, an incompetent, if not treacherous officer, as the chief commander of his army. In a few weeks, during the autumn of 1805, the defeats and losses, to which the Austrians were subjected, were severe and afflictive; and the emperor, despairing of the defence of his capital, left it to be profaned by an insulting foe. He did not, however, relinquish the contest before his Russian allies, who had the principal share in the battle of Austerlitz, were compelled to retreat on that disastrous day. It appears that the pacification which ensued was solely the work of Francis, whom the Russian monarch in vain stimulated to a continuance of hostilities. The terms of the treaty of Presburg were extremely displeasing to the vanquished prince, who not only lost the spoils of Venice and a considerable part of his German territories, but was obliged to acquiesce in other arrangements which he strongly disapproved. In the following year, when the Prussians were in danger of ruin, he made no attempt to assist their monarch, because he was unprepared to renew hostile operations; and an additional reason may perhaps be assigned;—he did not consider Frederic William as entitled to assistance, since, by declining all concern in the preceding coalition, he had hastened the humiliation of the head of the empire.

The peace between France and Austria would not so soon have been violated by the latter, if Napoleon had not, with all the rashness of ambition, involved himself in a hazardous war with Spain. Hoping to profit by this opportunity of re-action, the emperor called all his disposable force into the field, in 1809, and gave orders not only for an invasion of Bavaria, whose sovereign continued to be the obedient vassal of France, but for an expedition into the Venetian territories, which, he thought, might be easily recovered. Fortune seemed for a time to smile upon his arms; but disasters were subsequently experienced, and the defeat of his principal force at Wagram induced him to solicit peace, which he purchased by important cessions, resigning different parts of Poland to the Saxons and Russians, and a part of Austria to the Rhenish confederacy, and even admitting the subjects of his great enemy to the possession of the right bank of the Save. He seemed now to be effectually humbled; and exhibited a strong proof of his despondency, by consenting to the marriage of his eldest daughter with the oppressor of Germany. This inglorious connexion kept him in a dependent state, and so far bound him to Napoleon, that he did not even refuse, like a man of honor and spirit, to send an auxiliary force to the mighty army which invaded the dominions of his northern friend. But it is said, that the general whom he selected for that ostensible service (the prince of Schwartzenberg) acted with such caution and scrupulosity, as rarely to expose the troops to great danger; and, at the same time, with an appearance of alacrity, which seemed to preclude the tyrant's suspicions.

When the effect of the invasion had manifested itself in the opportunity which it afforded for a new coalition, Francis, though he had placed his army on a formidable basis, did not seem disposed to risk a new war with Napoleon; and he suffered the French, in 1813, to harass the Russians and their German associates with all the rigors of hostility, while he was anxiously deliberating whether he should interfere or remain neutral. But the persuasions of his able minister, prince Metternich, and the suggestions of his generals, at length prevailed upon him to enter into the confederacy. This determination gave new life and vigor to the continental interest; and a mighty host appeared in the most terrific attitude, ready to take vengeance upon the daring and profligate enemies of mankind. As almost every victory

which the French advantage of numbers and discipline, it would soon turn a multitude of the opprobrious abatement of centre and the right commanded, and berg led into the prince of Sweden's fleets, he retired troops at such p adversaries cooll assistance. The seemed precarious very severe loss, his army.

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which the French had obtained had more evidently resulted from the advantage of number, in the field, than from the superiority of courage and discipline, it was not perhaps difficult to foresee that the tide would soon turn against them, in consequence of the transcendent magnitude of the opposing force. They fought, however, without any visible abatement of spirit; and their emperor moved alternately to the centre and the right, against that part of the allied force which Blucher commanded, and that still greater army which the prince of Schwartzberg led into the field; while his former friend Bernadotte, the crown-prince of Sweden, threatened his left with an attack. After various conflicts, he retired to the neighbourhood of Leipsic, and stationed his troops at such points as presented an appearance of defensibility. His adversaries coolly surveyed his positions, and derided his means of resistance. The various assaults were so far successful, that his escape seemed precarious: but he found an avenue for retreat; and, after a very severe loss, he escaped to the Rhine with the shattered remains of his army.

The success of the new coalition rescued Germany and Holland from encroachments and usurpations; and the next step, in the progress of victory, was the dictation of peace to France within her own frontiers. This was the object of that well-concerted march, which filled the country with alarm, and shook the tyrant on his throne. It was suspected, by some of those politicians who had an exalted opinion of their own sagacity and penetration, that the Austrian emperor, whatever zeal he might affect to display in the cause of national independence, would not proceed to the extremity of deposing his son-in-law, to whose splendid throne his own grandson seemed to have fair pretensions: but, when the blind obstinacy of Napoleon had constrained the allies to break off all negotiation with him, Francis was not less disposed than his Russian friend to put an end to that proud and insolent domination which the reviving spirit of Europe could no longer brook. The two armies, which had for some time been at too great a distance from each other to act with due concert, were brought by seasonable movements within the means of convenient co-operation; and the French capital, being assaulted with energy, was left to the clemency of foreign powers. Reasonable terms of capitulation were granted; and the constituted authorities were permitted to re-organise the government. Napoleon and his family were excluded from the throne, as the reader has already been more fully informed; and, when Louis XVIII. had been invested with that sovereignty which he claimed by his descent from Henry IV., a congress convoked by the emperor at Vienna proceeded to the settlement of the affairs of Europe. The deliberations of the princes and plenipotentiaries were disturbed by the perfidy of Bonaparté, who, suddenly appearing in France, re-obtained the throne by the king's retreat. While Francis was diligently employed in military preparations, the usurper was ruined by the magnanimous efforts of the English and Prussians; and, when the Austrian army began to take an active part in the contest, little remained to be performed, except the adjustment of a treaty for the humiliation of France.

Germany and Italy were the chief countries to which the deliberations of the congress were directed. To some of its acts we have already adverted; and its other resolutions and arrangements will be noticed under their proper heads.

Peace has since prevailed in Germany; and the emperor, aided by the influence of the holy alliance, has over-awed his subjects into that

humble forbearance which precludes him from the necessity (though not the moral obligation) of performing his promise with regard to a representative government and a free constitution. But, in Italy, the intrigues of the Carbonari (a society of the friends of freedom) produced revolutions which roused the despot from his dream of security.

In the Neapolitan and Piedmontese territories, even the soldiery joined the people in demanding a reform, and new governments were hastily organised. Francis, apprehensive that the inhabitants of his Italian provinces would catch the rising flame, summoned the king of Naples to the congress of Laybach to answer for his weakness and negligence in suffering himself to be enslaved by a faction, and sent him back with instructions for the regulation of his future conduct. He also employed a considerable army in crushing the insurrection; and the invaders, after defeating general Pepe, took possession of Naples, and restored the former government. The commotions in Piedmont were quelled before an Austrian force arrived, and affairs resumed a tranquil course. The emperor, to secure his authority in both countries, garrisoned the principal fortresses; and revolutionary attempts have not since been renewed.

Francis, emperor of Austria, was born on the 12th of February, 1768, and was married, in 1788, to a princess of Wurtemberg; after whose death, in 1790, he espoused his cousin Maria Theresa, daughter of Ferdinand IV. king of Naples. His third wife was Maria Louisa, who was also his cousin, being a daughter of the late archduke Ferdinand. To this lady he was married in 1808, and after her death, in 1816, he gave his hand to Charlotte, daughter of the king of Bavaria.

He had no issue by his first marriage. By the second he has

Maria-Louisa, born December 12, 1791, married to Napoleon, when he was emperor of France, April 1, 1810; now duchess of Parma.

Ferdinand-Leopold-Francis-Joseph-Crescentius, prince imperial, born April 19, 1793.

Leopoldina-Carolina-Josepha, born January 22, 1797; married, in 1817, to don Pedro, now emperor of Brazil.

Maria-Clementina-Frances-Josepha, born March 1, 1798, married, in 1816, to the prince of Salerno, second son of Ferdinand IV. of Naples.

Joseph-Francis-Leopold, born April 9, 1799.

Carolina-Ferdinanda-Josepha-Demetria, born April 8, 1801.

Francis-Charles-Joseph, born December 7, 1802.

Maria-Anna-Francisca, born June 8, 1804.

Brothers and Sisters of the Emperor.

Charles-Louis, born September 5, 1771; vice-roy of Bohemia.

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; vice-roy of Lombardy.

Louis-Joseph, born December 14, 1784.

Rodolph-John-Joseph-Regnier, born January 8, 1788; cardinal and archbishop of Olmutz.

Maria-Theresa-Josepha-Charlotta, born January 14, 1767; married, in 1787, to Antony, brother to the king of Saxony.

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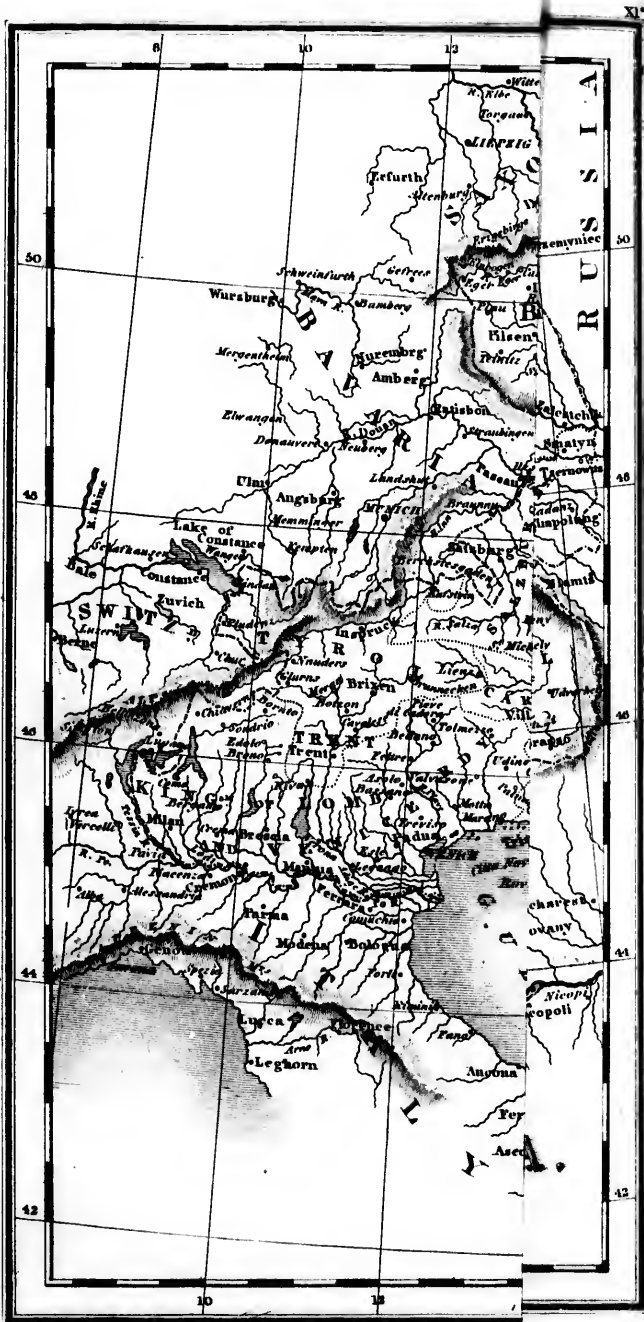
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Maria-Anna-Ferdinanda, born April 21, 1770; abbess of the chapter of Prague.

Charles Louis, king of Bavaria, is a descendant of the ancient dukes of that country, and was born on the 25th of August, 1786. He married Theresa, princess of Hildburghausen, by whom he has issue, both male and female.

Frederic Augustus, king of Saxony, traces his descent from the mar-graves of Misnia, and was born on the 23d of December, 1750. He espoused Maria Amelia Augusta, princess of Deux-Ponts, by whom he has one daughter. From the year 1807 to 1815, he ruled over a considerable part of Poland, as grand-duke of Warsaw.

Frederic William, king of Wurtemberg, derives his origin from the counts of Beutelsbach, one of whom received from the emperor Maximilian, in 1495, the title of duke of Wurtemberg. He was born on the 27th of September, 1781, and, in 1814, was married to the duchess of Oldenburg, who died in 1819. He afterwards espoused Paulina (the daughter of his uncle, the duke Alexander), by whom he has a son, Charles Frederic Alexander, born in 1823.

THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

The name of Austria was 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 almost every other province of Germany in the fertility of its soil, the abundance of its pastures, and the salubrity of the air. It is divided by the river Ens into Upper and Lower Austria, and is said to contain 35 cities and 256 market-towns. The capitals of those divisions we have already described.

The duchy of STYRIA, situated to the south of the archduchy of Austria, is about 125 miles long, and 70 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 iron mines have been worked above 1000 years; yet they continue to be very productive; and the Styrian steel is in great estimation. The chief mines are in the neighbourhood of Eisenærts, to the westward of Leoben. Here a bed of sparry ore forms the greater part of a small hill called the Erzberg; and the whole produce of this district, in the course of the eighteenth century, amounted to 65,757,650 centners of ore (each being equal to 123 pounds of avoirdupois), which yielded 21,919,210 centners of raw iron. As these mines are now worked with greater attention and skill, they have in the present century been proportionally more productive. The salt-mines of Sandling and Ausee are likewise worked to great advantage. That article is procured in two modes, either as rock-salt in square masses, cut from the solid walls of the pit, or (when it is less pure) by introducing water into chambers formed for the purpose. At Ausee there are ninety sets of chambers, each consisting of about 750. Fine quarries of marble are also found in the limestone districts of this province. The forests, though extensive, have been neglected; and the culture of the vine is not perfectly understood by the people; yet, in some

parts, great quantities of excellent wine are made. The population of the whole province is supposed to exceed 820,000.

Graz, the capital, was regularly fortified at the time of the French invasion, in 1809; but its castle was then demolished, and most of the other works were afterwards destroyed by the emperor's order. It stands in a romantic valley, and some parts are well-built; it is adorned with handsome churches, and is rich in charitable institutions, and in establishments for education. Among the former, the most remarkable is a comprehensive system for the care of the poor, consisting of seven departments: one is a general hospital; another relates to the comfortable *accouchement* of unmarried women; the third part of the institution provides for the support of orphans and foundlings; by the fourth, an asylum is established for lunatics; the aged are maintained in the fifth division; and the two last comprise alms-houses connected with the hospital and the alms-house. The principal place of education is the Lyceum, which bears one great character of an university, as it confers degrees in theology and philosophy: but the instruction is not confined to those branches; for medicine, law, and political economy, are also objects of attention. The annexed library consists of 110,000 volumes, which are open to general perusal. An institution, called the Johannæum from the archduke John, deserves notice for its importance and utility. That intelligent prince, having employed himself in repeated surveys of Styria, had collected a large store of minerals, a great number of botanic specimens, a variety of manufactured products, a large library, and many sets of philosophical instruments; and, for the benefit of the citizens and provincials, he deposited these accumulations in a spacious house, with a view to the establishment of scientific lectures. Considerable additions were made to the collection by a nobleman named Egger, and other votaries of science; and the institution has diffused information and improvement. In the city and its neighbourhood, several manufactures are conducted with spirit, not only in those branches which are connected with the mineral produce of the country, but in the articles of silk, cotton, leather, paper, and glass. The population of the town amounts to 35,000.

The duchy of **CARINTHIA**, situated to the south-west of Styria, is still more mountainous and woody than that province, 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. This territory is 100 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, and its population is about 300,000. It is divided into the circles of Clagenfurt and Villach, which are so named from the chief towns. The former city is small, but not ill-built; the streets are broad, and some of them open into spacious squares. It has some monasteries, which escaped the reforming spirit of the emperor Joseph;—an university, a lyceum, a society for the encouragement of agriculture and the useful arts, and an asylum for the orphan children of soldiers. Many of its inhabitants (whose whole number is about 12,000) are employed in manufactures of silk, fine cloth, ribands, and muslin. It is rendered an insalubrious abode by the vicinity of a lake, from which a canal leads to the town.—Villach, which is situated at the confluence of the Geyl with the Drave, has a fortress, some handsome houses, and a brisk trade, particularly in iron and steel.

The duchy of **CARNIOLA**, to the south of Styria, is also in general mountainous; yet many parts yield not only good pasturage, but excellent corn, millet, hemp, and the best flax in the Austrian dominions. In the mountains are mines of iron, lead, and copper; and precious stones

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are sometimes found. The mines of Idria, in this duchy, may be considered as a natural curiosity. They are well worked, and are very productive. The descent is by stone stairs and ladders, and the galleries extend to the length of 1580 feet. The principal rivers are the Save, the Laybach, and the Gurk. Various kinds of fruit, as chestnuts, walnuts, olives, oranges, citrons, lemons, pomegranates, almonds, and figs, abound here; and black cattle and horses are bred in great numbers. The principal manufactures, beside those which depend on mineralogy, are woollen, linen, and lace: there are also some extensive glass-houses. The inhabitants, who exceed the amount of 390,000, are, for the most part, of Sclavonian origin: they are a robust and hardy race, less indolent than their Carinthian neighbours.

Laybach is the capital of this province, and the see of an archbishop; but it is not a handsome town, nor is it flourishing or populous, the number of its inhabitants scarcely exceeding 11,500. They carry on, however, some trade in oil, wine, and cutlery, and manufacture good linen and some silken articles. The mountainous castle of this city has degenerated into a prison.

A considerable part of this duchy has lately been added to the government of the coast, or the maritime provinces,—a spacious tract, extending from the Trevisiano to the borders of Dalmatia, and containing a population of 430,000. In the LITORALE (as this territory is styled) is included the peninsula of Istria, which, before the French revolution, belonged to Venice, and the capital of which is Capo d'Istria, a small town on an island in the gulf of Trieste, connected with the continent by a bridge of very uncommon length, and containing a cathedral, several monasteries, a well-contrived aqueduct, and salt-works. Pola, in the same peninsula, is situated upon a mountain, dignified (as well as the former town) by an episcopate, and rendered an object of curiosity by the remains of a fine amphitheatre, and other Roman antiquities. The air of Istria is not very salubrious, and the soil is not the most fertile; but it affords good pasturage, produces oil, and supplies ship-wrights with timber; and its vineyards annually furnish wine to the amount of 120,000 eimera,—a German measure equal to 15 English wine-gallons. In the towns, the people are chiefly of Italian extraction; but the inhabitants of the rural districts are of Sclavonian descent.

The counties of Goritz and Gradisca are comprehended within the boundaries of the Litorale. They produce corn, wine, and oil; and the chief towns have some trade and manufactures. Goritz is an archbishopric, and Gradisca an episcopate; and the former town boasts of a literary and scientific society.

The most flourishing town in this maritime tract is Trieste, which possesses a spacious and secure harbour, and the advantages of a free port. Its inhabitants are about 35,000, among whom are Roman-catholics, Greeks, Lutherans, Calvinists, and Jews. Its manufactures are those of silk, velvet, thread, porcelain, soap, sugar, paint, and leather; but its chief trade is by commission. It supplies the Austrian dominions with almost every article of foreign produce, and is, in particular, a great *depôt* for the merchandise of the Levant. Its trade is more encouraged by the court of Vienna than that of Venice, though the latter might be rendered more important and beneficial. Fiume is also a free port, and has considerable trade. The town is well-built, and adorned with churches and conventual structures. Buccari has likewise a thriving traffic, in consequence of its commodious harbour.

The county of Tyrol connects the Austrian territories in Germany

with the new kingdom of Lombardy, or (as it is sometimes called) the Lombardo-Venetian realm. It is 150 miles long and 120 broad, with a population of about 800,000. It is extremely mountainous, the chain of the Noric or Rhetian Alps running through its whole length, and rivaling 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. The capital is Innsbruck, situated in a charming valley on the banks of the Inn. It is a well-built town, but neither very large nor particularly strong. In the castle, the hall and picture-gallery are entitled to the notice of strangers, to whom the library, treasury, and armoury, are also shown among the curiosities of the place. Some fine churches and monasteries likewise embellish the town. The university is less flourishing than it formerly was, being degraded into a Lyceum: but it still presents considerable advantages to the votaries of literature. Manufactures and trade, at the same time, usefully exercise the industry of the inhabitants. Gloves, bonnets, and other articles of dress, are here made both for immediate consumption and exportation: all kinds of glass are prepared with skill; and the varied produce of the country is sent to many parts of Germany and Italy.

The territories of Trent and Brixen are included in the county of Tyrol: but the bishops are no longer invested with temporal jurisdiction. Trent has acquired fame in ecclesiastical history, by the council which met in one of its churches from the year 1545 to 1562. It is a well-built town; but it does not flourish in point of trade, and it is rendered a disagreeable abode by the violent heat of the summer and the intense cold of the winter. Brixen is much less populous than Trent, having only about 4000 inhabitants. In both cities, the people manifest a greater tendency to the manners of Italy than to those of Germany.

The Tyrolese, properly so called, are a brave and hardy race, simple and frank in their manners, and temperate in their habits. When governed with moderation, they are not licentious or refractory; but, when treated with tyrannic cruelty, as they were by the French, and also by the king of Bavaria, during that temporary sway which he obtained over them by his connexion with Bonaparté, they are ready to rush into arms, and to take severe revenge for the provocations which they have received. On such occasions, the females partake of the indignation which animates the men, and display the most undaunted spirit. In all these provinces, the established religion is the Roman catholic, attended indeed with a toleration of other modes of worship. The language, in general, is the German, though impure; but in some parts the Wendish, or Sclavonian, 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 are considered as being out of Germany, will be described separately in order.

REVENUE.] The revenue of the emperor of Austria, derived from his hereditary dominions, did not, in 1808, far exceed 16 millions and a quarter, in sterling money, if indeed it amounted to that sum; and it is stated that the exigencies of that year were calculated at 22 millions. In 1814, the deficiency of regular supply was considerably greater; so that it became necessary to issue an additional number of

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bank-bills; and the government has sometimes relieved itself by an arbitrary reduction of the value of these bills, to the great detriment of public credit. In 1808, the general funded debt amounted to 75 millions sterling, exclusive of the debt of each province, contracted on its own security. The war of 1809, and the succeeding war, greatly augmented the public debt; but it is now in a train of liquidation. It is not altogether creditable to the government, that the contributions to the national treasury are ill-proportioned to the means of individuals, the nobles and the clergy being assessed in a partial degree, while the chief burthen falls on the middle class.

ARMY.] The military force of Austria, on the peace establishment, in the year 1801, was stated, from official returns, at 328,600 men. It has, since that time, been considerably more numerous, if we include in the calculation all the dependencies of the empire. Of the remarkable military system, adopted in Hungary and other provinces, the chief features will be hereafter displayed.

TITLE.] The title of the sovereign of Austria, since his assumption of the hereditary imperial dignity, is as follows: Francis, by the grace of God, elected emperor of the Romans, always august, hereditary emperor of Austria, king of Hungary, Bohemia, and Lombardy, archduke of Austria, duke of Lorrain, Salzburg, &c.

BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF BOHEMIA.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 200 } Breadth 175 }	between	{ 12 and 16, 30 East longitude. 48, 30 and 51 North latitude.

Containing 14,000 square miles, with more than 239 inhabitants to each.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF MORAVIA.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 130 } Breadth 90 }	between	{ 15, 30, and 18, 30 East longitude. 48, 40 and 50 North latitude.

Containing 6,400 square miles, with more than 226 inhabitants to each.

NAMES.] BOHEMIA, or Boheim, or Boienheim, 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*, from Czech, the name of one of their ancient chiefs. They are of Slavonic origin.

Moravia derivés its name from the river Morau, which runs through it.

BOUNDARIES.] Bohemia is bounded on the north by Misnia and

Luſatia, on the eaſt by Sileſia and Moravia, on the ſouth by the archduchy of Auſtria, and on the weſt by Franconia and Bavaria.

Moravia is bounded on the north by Sileſia, on the eaſt by Hungary, on the ſouth by Auſtria, and on the weſt by Bohemia.

DIVISIONS.] Bohemia is divided into the ſixteen circles of Buntſtan, Koeniggratz, Chrudim, Kaurzim, Beraun, Rakonitz, Saatz, Leutmeritz, Bitschau, Czaslau, Tabor, Budweis, Prachin, Klattau, Pilsen, and Elnbogen. The city of Prague is not included in any one of theſe circles, but forms a diſtrict of itſelf.

Moravia forms ſix circles, namely, thoſe of Olmutz, Brunn, Zuzim, Iglau, Hradſch, 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, and to the north-eaſt from Sileſia by the Sudetic chain and the Giant mountains; on the ſouth-eaſt and ſouth it is ſeparated from Moravia and the archduchy of Auſtria by the Moravian heights: and on the weſt it has for its boundaries the Fichtel mountains and the Bohemian forests.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] Beſide the Elbe, which we have noticed in our account of Germany, the chief rivers of Bohemia are the Moldau and the Eger, or Egra. The former riſes in one of the ſouthern mountains, and, after running about 50 miles to the ſouth-eaſt, turns to the northward, and joins the Elbe near Melnick. The latter riſes in Franconia, runs to the eaſtward through the territory of Bayreuth into Bohemia, and falls into the Elbe near Leutmeritz. In the county of Glatz the Morau firſt appears, and, when it has traversed Moravia, diſcharges itſelf into the Danube, to the weſt of Preſburg. In Bohemia are ſeveral lakes; but they are not extenſive or remarkable.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Bohemia contains rich mines of ſilver, quickſilver, iron, copper, lead, and eſpecially tin; alſo ſulphur, ſalt-petre, cobalt, zinc, biſmuth, antimony, vitriol, alum, and coal. Above a hundred towns and places might be named where mine-works have been eſtabliſhed. Various ſpecies of marble, and many kinds of precious ſtones, are found here; but, in general, they are 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, ſalt-petre, and vitriol.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate of Bohemia is warm, pleaſant, and not inſalubrious: the ſoil is in general rich, but in ſome places ſandy. It is very fertile in corn, in paſtorage, garden and orchard fruits, and excellent hops. Moravia reſembles Bohemia in its climate, ſoil, and produce; but agriculture is better underſtood and conducted in the latter country.

ANIMALS.] The wild animals of Bohemia are bears, lynxes, wolves, foxes, martens, badgers, beavers; while the tame quadrupeds are black cattle, ſheep, and an excellent breed of horſes. The woods abound in game and wild fowl. In Moravia is found a ſpecies of leopard of the ſize of a dog, but thicker, called *ryſowe* by the inhabitants.

POPULATION AND NATIONAL CHARACTER. } The population of Bohemia was eſtimated by Hoeck, in 1801, at 2,806,493, and that of Moravia at 1,256,240; but the preſent amount is ſuppoſed to be above 3,350,000 in the former country and 1,450,000 in the latter. The Bohemians of a ſuperior claſs, in their perſons, habits, and manners, reſemble the Germans; but the reſt of the people have

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a greater similarity to the Hungarians and Slavonians. For ages, there was, among them, no middle state of people; for every lord was a sovereign, and every tenant a slave. Joseph II. generously discharged the Bohemian peasants, on the imperial demesnes, from the state of villanage in which they had been so long and so unjustly retained; and he ordered the nobles to follow his example. His commands were not, in this instance, attended with general obedience; but, from the increasing humanity of the times, slavery is now gradually declining.

Although the Bohemians, at present, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, 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, the glorious defeats which they gave to the Austrian power, and their generous struggles for Independence. But, as no means were left unemployed by their despotic masters for breaking their spirit, they were at length over-awed into subserviency; and, indeed, their internal jealousies and dissensions greatly contributed to their subjection.

The Moravians are partly of German and partly of Slavonian origin. A small tract, near Olmutz, is occupied by the Haunacks, who are supposed by the native statistic writers to be the unmixed descendants of the earliest inhabitants of this country. They are apparently a Slavonic tribe. Their manners are simple and unaffected: they are remarkably sober and temperate; and, if they are liable to the reproach of indolence, it is palliated, as they allege, by the fertility of their soil. Their young women are distinguished by the grace and elegance of their forms, and the neat adjustment of their dresses, which are very picturesque; and the men also are gay in their summer clothing; but, in the winter, they wear an ill-looking fur cap, and sometimes throw over their shoulders a brown woollen cloke, but more frequently the undressed skin of a sheep or a wolf.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The capital of Bohemia is Prague, situated almost in the centre of the kingdom, on both sides of the Moldau. It is more than twelve miles in circumference, and contains about 85,000 inhabitants, who occupy four towns, or divisions of the city. The most ancient part stands in a valley near the river; it has broad streets, and some churches of curious architecture. That which is called the new town has the greatest number of houses, most of which are well-built: it also exhibits the arsenal, and the Wissegorod, a decaying fortress. The royal and archiepiscopal palaces, and the chief public buildings, are in that division which is denominated Hradschin. The cathedral is a fine structure in the Gothic style, beautifully placed on the steep side of the western hill, overlooking the river, the magnificent bridge, and the greater part of the city. It contains four angels of cast silver upon two altars, the silver tomb of St. John Nepomuc, a number of revered reliques, and the monuments of many of the Bohemian kings. The bridge is adorned with the statues of twenty-nine saints,—an attraction which occasions the frequent resort of catholics, who implore the favor of those supposed mediators between God and sinful men. In that which is called the old town, the university, founded in 1348 by the emperor Charles IV., displays its venerable buildings, which, however, in comparison with former times, are nearly deserted by the votaries of learning. The church of the Holy Cross, famous for its columns, cupolas, and paintings,—the churches of St. Michael and St. James,—and the Clementine college, formerly belonging to the Jesuits, but now comprehending five places of worship, a medical apartment, a room appropriated to mathematical and

philosophical pursuits, an observatory, a valuable library, a printing-office, and an elegant theatre,—are also among the ornaments of this division. The Jews, who form about a tenth part of the population of Prague, are crowded in wretched habitations, which are considered as a part of the old town; but they are separated from it by six gates, which are shut at night. They are allowed to have synagogues; and they share in the general trade, which, notwithstanding the inland situation of the city, is far from being inconsiderable.

Olmütz was regarded as the capital of Moravia, before it was eclipsed by the fame of Brunn. It is a strong town, but is unpleasantly situated among the marshy branches of the Morau. The buildings are massive and substantial; but they are too lofty and very inelegant, raised for the most part upon square buttresses, with arcades. It had an university, which has dwindled to a modern Lyceum. Its trade is inconsiderable, and its population scarcely exceeds 12,000.

Brunn is now the station of the chief public offices connected with the Moravian government; but the states of the province meet alternately at this town and at Olmütz. The fortifications of Brunn are very ancient, and were formerly important; but the bastions have been suffered to fall into decay, and the fosses and other parts are occupied by dye-works and tan-pits. Beside the religious edifices, the most considerable buildings are the meeting-house of the states, the town-house, and the palace of prince Lichtenstein. The manufactures are well-conducted and flourishing; and that of fine woollen even begins to rival the broad cloth of England. About 23,000 persons (some say, 25,000) occupy this city and its suburbs.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] A great variety of useful articles are fabricated in these provinces. Linen is manufactured to a large amount; cotton and silk stuffs are neatly wrought: the woollen branch is rapidly increasing; hats, paper, leather, glass, wooden articles, and musical instruments, are also produced by the ingenious and industrious artisans. In addition to these articles of traffic, great quantities of metals, vegetable products, and cattle, are exported; and the balance of trade is considerably in favor of the citizens and provincials; but it has been remarked, that “the non-residence of the land-holders (who are at the same time proprietors of the manufactures) prevents the country from reaping the benefits that might be derived from this favorable balance, as the profits, instead of adding to the general capital, are for the most part squandered in the Austrian metropolis.”

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In early times, the Bohemians enjoyed the advantage of a representative government: but that apparent freedom is now merely nominal, though the states of the realm are suffered to meet, and offer humble advice to their sovereign. They consist of four orders,—the prelates, nobles, knights, and burgesses,—whose privileges are superseded by that despotism which regulates the affairs of the country in the Bohemian chancery at Vienna, and in a ministerial council at Prague. Each circle has a separate court of judicature, from which an appeal lies to the supreme tribunal of Prague. The political and judicial concerns of Moravia are regulated in a similar mode.

REVENUE AND ARMY.] The Bohemian revenue is said to exceed two millions and a quarter sterling, a great part of which is appropriated to the support of garrisons. About 50,000 men compose the military establishment of Bohemia during peace; and about 15,000 are maintained in Moravia, out of a revenue which is less than a million.

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RELIGION.] The established religion of Bohemia is the Roman-catholic; yet there are many protestants among the inhabitants, who, since the reign of Joseph II., have been tolerated in the free exercise of their favorite worship. The religion of Moravia is in like manner catholicism; but there are many Lutherans; and a great number of the Moravians have embraced a particular system, which they have propagated by their zealous missionaries in various parts of the globe.

The manners and practices of this sect deserve more particular notice. They are neither Lutherans nor Calvinists, but entertain some of the opinions of both those sects. No regular priests belong to their fraternity; but the most respectable elders alternately perform the sacerdotal duties. Brotherly love unites all the members of the community in the closest links of friendship. In each village which they inhabit, a committee is chosen from the elders, and invested with the direction of their affairs, under the control of a committee of the district. They attend more to manufacturing industry and trade, than to agriculture; and their profits are deposited in a general fund, out of which all are maintained on a footing of equality. Thus the old and infirm live as comfortably as the young and able-bodied; and the distinctions of rich and poor are wholly unknown among them.

UNIVERSITIES.] For the collegiate institutions in these two provinces, we refer the reader to our account of the chief towns; merely adding, that the progress of education has been greatly promoted in the present century by the erection of new schools.

LANGUAGE.] The language of Bohemia is a dialect of the Sclavonic; that of Moravia differs very little from it; but German is very commonly spoken in both countries, and most of the gentry are acquainted with the French language.

HISTORY.] The Boii were driven out of Bohemia by the Marcomanni; and the country became afterwards a province of the Ostrogoths, Lombards, Thuringians, and Franks, till in 534 it was overrun by the Sclavi. Charlemagne and some of his successors made these new inhabitants tributary; but they soon regained their independence, though they preserved a certain connexion with the German empire. They were governed for some centuries by dukes; but the royal dignity was granted in 1061 to Ladislaus, by the emperor Henry IV. In 1208, Otho IV. admitted the king of Bohemia, as a privileged prince, to the dignity of an elector of the empire. On the death of Wenceslaus V., in 1305, the male line of the Sclavonian kings failed, and the crown devolved to the house of Luxemburg. Of this family was the emperor Charles IV., by whose wisdom the state of the country was improved. His son Sigismund disgraced his character by suffering the reformers, John Huss and Jerome of Prague, to be put to death by an iniquitous sentence of the council of Constance; and he was exposed to the danger of losing the Bohemian crown by the war which arose with the Hussites. He was succeeded by his son-in-law Albert of Austria, a descendant of Rodolph count of Hapsburg; but the states of the realm afterwards exercised their right of free election, by choosing a native nobleman for their king. On the decease of Louis, a Polish prince, Ferdinand of Austria, having espoused the sister of that monarch, asserted his pretensions to the crown; and the states, influenced by the great power of his brother Charles V., and not aware of the arbitrary character of the new candidate, elected him, in 1527, for their sovereign. In return for their kindness, he governed them with a rod of iron, when they had refused to join him in a war against

the protestant princes of Germany; and he arrogantly declared Bohemia an arbitrary, hereditary kingdom. His son, the emperor Maximilian II., and his grandsons Rodolph and Matthias, had sufficient power to prevent their exclusion from the sovereignty. In the reign of the last of those princes, the states consented to accept his nephew Ferdinand as king; but his protestant subjects, complaining of the infringement of the privileges granted to their body, invited the elector Palatine to supersede the Austrian prince. He inconsiderately yielded to their solicitations, and soon felt the effect of his imprudence, being defeated in the battle of Prague, and dispossessed even of his electoral dominions. Bohemia then became what Ferdinand I. had declared it to be; and it has from that time been a mere appendage to the Austrian monarchy.

Moravia was formerly inhabited by the Quadi, who were overpowered in the sequel by Slavonian adventurers. During three centuries, it appears to have formed an independent kingdom: but it was subdued by the Bohemians about the year 1050, and has subsequently followed the fate of their realm.

HUNGARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	320	} between { 16 and 24 East longitude. 46 and 49 North latitude.
Breadth	210	

Containing 45,500 square miles, with more than 153 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 Ugours, a Tartarian tribe who migrated from the confines of China, and, after over-running a great part of Germany, established themselves in this country in the tenth century.

BOUNDARIES.] Hungary Proper (for it formerly included Transylvania, Slavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, and Walachia) is bounded on the north by Galitzia, on the east by the Bukovine and Transylvania, on the south by Slavonia, and on the west by the circle of Austria.

DIVISIONS.] It is divided into Upper and Lower Hungary, situated on opposite sides of the Danube. These respectively form two circles, which are sub-divided into *gespanschafts*, or counties, in number fifty-two.

The Banat or province of Temeswar has been considered as distinct from Hungary, because it was formerly governed by an independent king; and it has sometimes been in the possession of the Turks; but, when the Austrians were complete masters of the country, it was incorporated with the kingdom of Hungary. It is ninety-four miles long, and sixty-seven broad, containing about 3,850 square miles. It is divided into four districts, Csanad, Temeswar, Werschez, and Lugos.

MOUNTAINS.] The Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland and the Bukovine, are the principal, though many detached mountains are found in the country. The grand chain extends in a semicircular form, from the mountain of Javornik toward the north-west: it afterward bends to the south-east. Near the centre of the chain is the Lomnitz peak, the highest point of the whole mass, about 8640 feet above

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RIVERS, LAKES, AND MINERAL SPRINGS.] The principal rivers are the Danube, Theiss, and Drave. The first enters the country near Presburg, passes through Raab and Komorn, divides Buda from Pesth, and then runs to the southward until it reaches Sclavonia. The Theiss rises in a link of the Carpathian chain, receives the Koros and the Maros, and falls into the Danube near Belgrade. The Drave forms a boundary between Hungary and various parts of Croatia and Sclavonia, and joins the Danube below Essek.

Some considerable lakes are found in this country, particularly that which bears the name of Balaton or Platten. It is not very deep, for it rarely exceeds 27 feet in that respect; but its length is computed at 45 miles, while its breadth varies from four to nine. Its shores are in general low; but in some parts they are precipitous. It abounds with fine fish; and the shores are frequented by the white pelican, the bittern, and many other species of wild-fowl.

Mineral springs are particularly numerous in the northern parts of Hungary; and, in the Saros county alone, above seventy-two are mentioned by those who have made inquiries respecting their number. Some of these springs are hot, and others cold and acidulous. Of the former, the most remarkable are at Pesth and Grosswardein: of the latter, the most frequented are those of Fured, Bartfeld, and Neulublau.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary contains mines of gold, silver, lead, 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 farther to the south. The mine of Catharina-Stollen is the richest, and not only yields the more valuable metals, but also produces excellent copper. In the mining district of Schemnitz, there are five principal mineral courses, which run almost parallel to each other nearly east and west, and are connected by various branches. They have been explored to the depth of 300 fathoms. Each course has scattered veins of rich ore, from two to four inches in thickness, opening here and there in cavities coated by crystals of the ore, with quartz, calcareous spar, &c. In this part there are twelve royal mines, beside many which belong to private individuals, who are obliged to dispose of the ore to the government at a fixed rate. The country is intersected at different levels by the galleries of mines; forming a stupendous subterranean tract, which to strangers would be a labyrinth, but which is defined and divided with little difficulty by the crown miners and those who work for private proprietors. In the Schmalnitz mining district, the chief produce is copper, with which silver is sometimes intermixed: but there are also mines of very good iron, and a mine has been discovered at Czerweniza, containing that beautiful gem, the opal, which has not been found in any other country. In the Nagy-Banya division, some gold-mines are worked, without producing any great quantity of metal. The mineral produce of the Banat is not considerable, as it comprehends very little copper, less silver, and no gold. In the mines, forges, and works, of these four districts, about 50,000 persons are employed. To promote the skilful management of these pursuits, a college has been

organised at Schemnitz, where lectures are given by intelligent chemists and mineralogists; and it is expected that all who wish to become officers of the mines, or to direct the operations, should study for three years, and obtain certificates of their proficiency.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate of the southern part of Hungary is rendered unhealthy by its numerous lakes, stagnant waters, and marshes; but, in the northern part, which is mountainous and barren, the air is pure and wholesome. Few countries can boast a richer soil than that plain which diffuses itself to a wide extent between Presburg and Belgrade, and produces corn, grass, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, hops, pulse, millet, and fine fruit of various kinds.

In speaking of the produce of this kingdom, the culture of the vine seems to require particular notice, because wine is a valuable article of exportation. The vines are planted both upon stony hill and in fertile valleys: in the former situation, their vegetation is feeble, but, when they have received due attention, they yield rich and generous wine: in the latter position, they produce a much greater quantity of fruit, which, however, makes very inferior wine. The propagation of this plant is effected in three modes. Cuttings, or small twigs, are collected in the spring, bound together, and put into the earth in some shady place, where they take root; and, in the month of June, they are planted out in their proper places;—or a branch is bent down, inserted in the ground, and, when it has taken root, separated from the parent stem;—or the whole old stock is laid down and the branches are so distributed, as to give new trees in the direction required. Above 200 different sorts of wine are reckoned. That of Tokay is the best: but there are many less palatable sorts which pass under that denomination; and the wine of Menes is thought by some to be scarcely inferior to Tokay. Not content with procuring wine from the fresh grape, *ausbruch* (a sweet liquor) from the raisin, brandy from the skin, and syrup from the unfermented juice, the Germans and Hungarians have even endeavoured to procure oil, for burning and for other purposes, from the stone,—an attempt which, though it has not completely succeeded, has not entirely failed.

ANIMALS.] The horses of Hungary have been praised as an excellent breed; but it appears that they have not justly obtained their high reputation, though it must be allowed that they are strong, and capable of bearing great fatigue. Uncommon pains have been recently taken to improve the breed; and some noblemen have introduced horse-races on the English plan. The horned cattle are large, active, and vigorous. The original breed of sheep had coarse hairy wool, and upright spiral horns; but, by crossing and varying the stock, that breed has been greatly diminished. Buffaloes are not uncommon in this country; and they are used, like oxen, in agriculture. Among the wild animals are wolves, bears, and boars; but the two last are very rare.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Near Szadelo, about 30 miles from Caschau, is an extraordinary cavern, of such 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) that I firmly believe that a man, once lost in it, though he might have lights and food enough to last him a month, would not be able to find his way out." And Korabinsky, a German writer, says that it is of such astonishing length, that two members of the Royal Society of London, who were sent some years ago into Hungary, to examine this and other curiosities, after remaining in it three days, could never get to the end of it, or find an opening.

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Near Szilitz, is another celebrated cavern, about 100 feet in breadth, 150 in length, and 25 in height. From the roof at the 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 amidst the heats of summer. But this is an exaggeration, in consequence of the observers depending too much on their feelings; the cave, probably, always preserves the same temperature, which has been found to be that of the freezing point.

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 clear their feus, and profit by the natural advantages of their country, it might become so again. At present, it is supposed that about seven millions compose the population, without including Transylvania or the Bukovine.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The Hungarians, in their persons, are well made; and their fur caps, the close-bodied coat girded by a sash, and the cloke 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. They shave their beards, but preserve their whiskers on their upper lips. Their usual arms are the broad-sword, and a kind of pole-axe, beside their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned more handsome than those of Austria; and their sable dress, with long sleeves, and their stays fastened before with 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 huts upon the roads are miserable hovels, and even those are seldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for the peasants, and the poultry, frequently live in the same apartments with their owners: but there are many cottages which afford superior accommodation, and allow a proper distinction between human beings and brutes.

The diversions of the Hungarians are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a spirited and magnanimous people. Their ancestors 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 Maria-Theresa, notwithstanding the provocations they received from her family, will always be remembered to their honor.

They were equally faithful to her grandson Francis, during the frequent wars which he maintained with the French: he would therefore be influenced by gratitude to govern them with moderation, even if his disposition did not naturally incline him so to act.

A part of the population of Hungary consists of Gypsies, called by the natives *Czygani*, who are, in general, less squalid and thievish, than those tribes which wander over Great-Britain. Maria-Theresa and her son Joseph endeavoured to civilise them by various ordinances, which seem to have had some effect, as the nomadic or wandering gypsies are now rarely found in Hungary. The Jews are far more numerous in that country than the supposed descendants of the Egyptians or the Hindoos; and they are said to betray the same illiberal and over-reaching spirit which the Israelites in other regions exhibit. Emigrants from Walachia, and their offspring, may also be mentioned among the inhabitants of the

Hungarian realm. They amount to more than one half of a million, while the Jews scarcely exceed the number of 135,000. They understand the culture of the vine better than the generality of the peasants; and a great number are usefully employed in metallurgic operations.

[CHIEF TOWNS AND EDIFICES.] Buda, by the Germans called Ofen, is the seat of the Hungarian government; but the cities of Buda and Pesth 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 now contains 36,000 inhabitants, and Pesth has about 21,000. At Buda, the Hungarian *regalia* are now kept. The crown, in the year 1784, was removed to Vienna by order of Joseph II. But this measure gave so great offence, and excited such violent discontent, 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 in imitation of 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. Beside these stones, are the images of the apostles and patriarchs. The pope annexed to this crown a silver patriarchal cross, which was afterwards added to the seven towers, the eagle, and the sun and moon, which are displayed 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 in the reign of Maria-Theresa.

The extensive fortress of Buda, which occupies a high rock, contains the palaces of the viceroy and of several nobles, many churches and streets, and forms within itself a complete town. Another town is situated at the foot of the hill, along the western bank of the river; and there are two other divisions of Buda, one of which is almost entirely peopled with Rascians, a distinct Sclavonian community.

Pesth, which is the central point both of inland and foreign trade, is annually increasing in its extent, and displays many good streets and handsome houses. It has four fairs in the year, which rival the most frequented fairs of Germany; and, as in those of England, various entertainments and diversions are mingled with the concerns of traffic. It has also two theatres, one for German pieces, the other for the native drama: one building is large and elegant, the other small and contemptible. A national library was formed in this city, in 1804, by the liberality of count Szecheny: the subsequent donation of a cabinet of natural history has extended the utility of the scheme; and a palace has been purchased for the reception of whatever may conduce, with the former contributions, to the formation of a literary and scientific repository. There is likewise an university at Pesth, founded on a liberal plan, without requiring any of those tests which would confine its benefits to the votaries of the established religion. It is usually attended by about 700 students, and the professors and their assistants amount to 90.

Presburg, the former capital, scarcely contains 25,000 inhabitants. It stands on a hill of moderate elevation, which may be considered as the commencement of the Carpathian chain, overlooking that extensive plain through which the Danube flows. Dr. Bright says, "The town is insignificant: many of the streets are steep and narrow; the good houses are few; and the shops bear a poor and retail character;" but professor Sennowitz declares, that it is handsome and well-built. It

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has the honor and benefit of a royal catholic academy and a Lutheran gymnasium; but it has very little trade, being merely a market for wine, and for the interchange of the produce of different parts of Hungary.

Debretzin is the most populous town in the whole kingdom, if we separate the amount of the inhabitants of Buda from those of Pesth. It is occupied by 40,000 persons; yet they are so inattentive to their own accommodation, that the town scarcely exhibits one large or respectable mansion; for almost all the habitations are thatched cottages. It is a place of great trade; but it is destitute of that bustle and animation which extensive business is apt to create. "The blank walls (says count Bathyani), the dark retail shops, the sellers of tobacco-pipes, the smokers, and the dogs, the stillness which reigns in the midst of the daily business, bring to the mind a lively recollection of the dwellings of our eastern neighbours. You are induced to believe that the women are intentionally concealed. The black handkerchiefs with which they cover their heads resemble hats, and their blue pelisses, approaching to the uniform of the hussar, almost disguise their sex. The men are covered with large cloaks, generally of a dark-blue, and look under their broad hats as from beneath an umbrella; and the appearance of the multitude, in other places so varied, is here uniform and melancholy." The inhabitants in general live in rural simplicity, estranged from the luxury and dissipation of great cities. The town is famous for its bread, its sope, salt-petre, and tobacco-pipes; and literature is not neglected amidst the concerns of trade; for, beside a large catholic school, there is a reformed or Calvinistic college, which is well frequented.

Except Buda or Pesth, Temeswar is the handsomest town in Hungary. It is the seat of a council of finance, and the residence of a Greek bishop.—Gran is more distinguished by being the see of the Hungarian primate, than by beauty of structure or commercial importance.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Notwithstanding an ample provision of raw materials, the manufactures of the Hungarians, for a long period, were few and inconsiderable. Maria Theresa seems to have been the first of their sovereigns who took serious measures for the promotion of that branch of industry and profit. She sent for a number of artisans from the Netherlands, and particularly encouraged silk-weaving and the woollen and cotton branches; but these arts did not greatly flourish, with all her care and attention. The linen which is made in Hungary is of a coarse kind; the cotton articles are not so skillfully wrought as to invite orders from other countries; and the woollen fabrics, though they are improving, are greatly inferior to those of Moravia. Glass and earthen-ware are well manufactured: a kind of felt is made for hats, impenetrable to the rain; common paper is produced in sufficient quantities, while the finer sorts are imported. Various articles in iron and steel are fabricated, but neither with skill nor in abundance. The exports chiefly consist of horses, cattle, swine, corn, wine, tobacco, hides, tallow, saffron, honey, wax, and the produce of the mines; and, in comparing the value of these with the imports, the balance is usually found to be in favor of Hungary.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians have preserved the remains of various checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, which 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 *gcsparnschafts*, or counties, into which the kingdom is divided. These houses, however, form only one body, as their votes are taken together. The diet, beside being convened on all great national events, ought to meet at stated times. Under Matthias Corvinus and Ferdinand I. it was decreed that the meeting should be annual; and, under Leopold I., that it 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 shake off these encumbrances; and, from 1764 to 1790, no diet was holden, though many important affairs had happened within that period. This assembly met in 1808; and the number of the nobles and deputies who were present amounted to 696: but it does not appear that any great national benefit, or any improvement of the state of their country, resulted from their deliberations. The influence, indeed, which the emperor derives from his general power, enables him to govern Hungary by the medium of a chancery at Vienna, without the necessity of consulting the diet.

The privileges enjoyed by the Hungarian nobles are greater than a just or well-constituted government may be thought to require. They hold courts for the decision of points connected with their estates, or with the cultivators of the land: they are allowed to exercise high authority, yet not so unlimited as it formerly was, over the peasants; and they are free from all taxes except such as they think proper to impose upon themselves, while the unfortunate rustics or laborers may be plundered without mercy or moderation. Every county has its ruling assembly, in which the nobles, prelates, and deputies of the royal free towns (as the privileged corporations are styled), regulate provincial affairs, and harass, if they do not always oppress, the peasants. From the lord's court, in case of delinquency, an appeal lies to the county court, to the judicature of the district, the royal tribunal at Buda, and finally to the king himself, without whose sanction no capital punishment can be inflicted, although supposed offenders are for many years immured in dungeons by unfeeling nobles, into whose arbitrary conduct no inquiry is instituted.

REVENUE.] The Hungarian revenue, it is said, is about two millions and a half, arising from the crown lands, the mines and salt-works, duties upon merchandise, the taxes paid by the Jews and the free towns, the annual contribution demanded by the court, and other sources.

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 twelve thousand: these are generally light-horse, and well known in modern times by the name of Hussars. 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 Haiduks, 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 in 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 *insurrection*, 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 a severe obligation. Each brought into the field a number of combatants proportioned to his estate. The archbishop of Gran, and the bishop of Erlau, brought each two stands of colors, and under each stand a thousand men; the archbishop of Colocza, and several bishops, a thousand each. In the battle of

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Mohacz, seven bishops were left on the field. *Insurrections* of this kind were summoned by the emperor in 1800, and in other years of war; and, at those times, beside the amount which he expected, a great volunteer force, well armed and accoutred, came forward from the free towns and privileged districts. In time of peace, the standing force consists of twelve regiments of infantry, and ten of hussars, forming in the aggregate above 60,000 men.

[RELIGION.] The established religion of Hungary is the Roman-catholic; but the protestants enjoy complete toleration. They have an entire freedom of public worship, with churches and bells, and their own schools and seminaries of learning, and are admitted to all the public ~~schools~~, and to a seat in the legislative council.

There are two archbishoprics, Gran and Colocza. The bishoprics are those of Erlau, Nitra, Raab, Waitzen, Fünf-kirchen or (Five Churches), Wetz-priim, Gross-Wardein, Csanad, Stuhl-Weissenburg, Neusohl, and Rosenau. The last three were founded in 1777.

The archbishop of Gran, by virtue of his ecclesiastical character, is lord-lieutenant of the county, primate and chancellor of Hungary; has the exclusive right of crowning the king, and can create nobility in the archiepiscopal territories. His annual revenue is about 36,000*l.* sterling, while that of the archbishop of Colocza is not more than 5000*l.* Beside the diocesan prelates, there are at present sixteen bishops who have no revenues, twenty-two rulers of abbeys, a hundred and twenty-four titular abbots, forty-one provosts with revenues, seventy who have merely the honor of the title, two hundred and seven prebendaries, sixty-seven honorary canons, two thousand seven hundred and eighty-two priests, four hundred and forty-eight local chaplains, and one thousand nine hundred and twenty-eight assistants.

The members of the Greek church are also very numerous in Hungary. They are divided into two branches,—those who have so far united themselves to the catholics, as to acknowledge the supremacy of the Romish pontiff, while they retain some of their peculiar ceremonies; and those who have refused to enter into this union. Even the latter have been admitted to an equality of civil rights with the members of the regular establishment.

The claims of the protestants to the full rights of citizens were allowed by the treaty of Vienna in 1606, and by that of Linz in 1645; but the injustice of the government violated or eluded those engagements. After a long interval of discouragement and depression, both Lutherans and Calvinists found a protector in the emperor Joseph II., and a still greater friend in his brother Leopold, who, in 1791, gratified them to the extent of their wishes. In consequence of this liberal policy, the Lutheran churches have been more than doubled since that time, having risen from the number of 213 to 450; and those of the other branch of protestants have also been more generally diffused over the country. The ministers of these persuasions have not, in general, a great provision for their support; but they endeavour to narrow the circle of their wants, and to conform their desires to their circumstances. The majority of the catholic priests have a yet smaller income, notwithstanding the formation of a fund for their relief, out of the estates which belonged to the monasteries suppressed by Joseph, and out of the contributions demanded from every new bishop.

[UNIVERSITIES.] The principal university of Hungary is that of Pesth, which has an annual income of 20,000*l.* sterling, a fifth part of which is allotted to pay the salaries of the professors. The seminaries

at Raab and Caschau are likewise styled universities; but they are rather academies founded by the Jesuits. At Funf-kirchen, an university was built and endowed by Louis I. in 1364, which at one time was attended by 1000 students; but it was ruined after the battle of Mohacz, and this town did not again flourish as a place of education before 1694, when the Jesuits erected a college, which, by their zeal and learning, was soon brought into high repute.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Slavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects. The Hungarian Proper seems 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 atyánk ki vagy a mennyekben, zentelssék meg a te neved; jöjjon el a te országod. Legyen meg a te akaratod, minr a menyben, ugy itt e földön. A mi mindennapi, kenyérunket ad meg nekünk; es bocsasd meg a mi vetkeinket, mi keppin miis meg bocsutunk azoknak a kik mi ellenünk vetkeztenek; es ne vigy minket a hesertethe: de zabudits meg minket a gonosztól; mert tied az ország, 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 twenty miles from Belgrade, are the remains of a magnificent Roman bridge. Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage; and there are still extant, in the cabinets of the curious, complete sets 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; these were expelled by the Lombards; they by the Avari; who were followed by the Sclavi in the beginning of the ninth century. Near its close, the Ugours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took possession of the country. Hungary formerly comprehended an assemblage of different states. The greater part of it was afterward governed for a century by dukes, one of whom, called Stephen the Holy, assumed the royal title, and eclipsed the fame of his predecessors by the strength of his mind, the extent of his knowledge, and his zeal for the diffusion of Christianity. He was also a spirited warrior, and compelled the Transylvanians and Bulgarians to abstain from incursions, and respect the superiority of his character. When he had fixed the tranquillity of his realm, the establishment of a code of laws occupied his attention; and, in 1016, it was sanctioned in an assembly of his nobles and clergy. He was succeeded, in 1038, by his nephew Peter the German, as he had lost his only son. The tyranny and cruelty of the new king excited such a warmth of general indignation, that he was driven from the throne. Aba, the prince who superseded him, was murdered for his inhumanity by his own attendants, and Peter was restored by the assistance of the emperor Henry III. As his disposition had not been corrected or improved by adversity, his continued misconduct occasioned his second dethronement; he was deprived of his sight, in 1046,

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by Andrew, a descendant of the ancient dukes, who procured his own election to the sovereignty. This prince, being involved in a dispute with his brother Bela, was defeated and slain in 1059.

After various reigns, of which few important or authentic particulars are recorded, Ladislaus, in 1077, ascended the throne; and, while he extended his realm by conquests, he established his fame by political ability. Coloman reigned with less reputation; and Stephen II., after signalising his courage in war, evinced his mental weakness by abandoning the duties of his station, and retiring into a monastery. Other princes, of whom some are praised by historians, and some censured, governed Hungary during the dark ages. At length Andrew II. became king, and reigned for many years in unmolested peace. Weary of tranquillity, he engaged in a crusade, and left the kingdom to the risk of misgovernment and commotion. After his return from Palestine, he framed a new system of law; but he imprudently confirmed and augmented the privileges of the nobles, without sufficiently providing for the liberty and welfare of the people. He died in 1235, after a reign of 30 years. With his grandson, Andrew III., the line of Stephen terminated, in 1301; but that was deemed a point of little moment, as the states assumed the privilege of monarchical election.

After the successive choice of a Bohemian and a Bavarian prince, Charles Robert, of the house of Anjou, obtained the crown in 1310. He was victorious in war, humane and moderate in peace. His son Louis distinguished himself by an act of exemplary justice, which he performed at Naples, where the king his brother had been murdered by Joan, the wanton and profligate queen. He put some of her accomplices to death; and, when he might have placed himself on the Neapolitan throne, contented himself with the revenge which he had taken in that remarkable expedition. Sigismund of Luxemburg, who had espoused Mary, a temporary queen, the daughter of Louis, was chosen king in 1387, and reigned for fifty years, also occupying, during a considerable part of that time, the imperial throne of Germany, but not with high or sullied reputation. His successor was Albert the Austrian, who endeavoured to secure the throne to his infant son Ladislaus; but the Hungarian nobility made choice of another prince of that name, who was then king of Poland. This monarch having lost his life in a rash war with the Turks, in 1444, his young competitor was declared king; during whose reign, John Huniades, vaivode of Transylvania, gallantly defended Hungary and its dependencies against the encroaching infidels, who were not, however, prevented, by all the efforts of the Christians, from gaining possession of Constantinople.

The death of Ladislaus was followed by a violent contest for the crown, which was bestowed on Matthias, the son of Huniades, a prince of great ability, who made some bold attempts, not wholly without effect, for the humiliation of the nobles. As the next king did not display that vigor which was necessary to maintain the superiority acquired by his predecessor, the aristocratic influence revived. This contest for power filled the kingdom with commotion; and, in the reign of Louis II., the Turks were encouraged by the continuance of disorder, and by the ambition of Solyman, to aim at an important conquest. In 1526, a great army of those barbarians rushed into Hungary, and triumphed in the field of Mohacz, where the king lost his life. The sultan took possession of Pesth, after the murder of many of the inhabitants: but he suddenly retired, without securing the city by a garrison, John Zapol, vaivode of Transylvania, obtained by his influence

the vacant sovereignty. Another powerful candidate also offered himself, pretending that his marriage with the sister of the late king gave him a preferable claim. This was Ferdinand, king of the Romans, whose attempts for the establishment of his pretensions induced the reigning prince to implore the aid of Solyman. Pesth being taken by the Turks from the Austrian claimant, they gave it up to John, who exercised a divided sway until the year 1540. After his decease, the Turks seized the most considerable portion of the realm, while the aristocratic partisans of Ferdinand governed the rest in his name.

The partition of Hungary, between the Christians and the infidel, continued far beyond the middle of the seventeenth century. The Turkish yoke was then shaken off by the spirit of the Austrian troops, who recovered Buda and Pesth, and established the sway of Leopold I. Joseph, son of that prince, was crowned king of Hungary, in 1687; and the diet even recognised the hereditary pretensions of his family. Yet the people, and more particularly the protestants, were in a state of discontent; and, as Ragotski, the Transylvanian, had fomented the disorders of the country in the reign of Ferdinand III., Tekeli, a turbulent Hungarian, now followed a similar course, in concert with the Ottoman cabinet. Again was the realm invaded by the Turks, who re-took the counties to the eastward of the Theiss: but the victory obtained at Zenta, by prince Eugene, Leopold's illustrious general, checked their career; and the treaty of Carlowitz, concluded in 1699, left the Austrians in possession of all Hungary except the Banat, and also of Transylvania and Sclavonia. When a new war had arisen from the perfidy of the Porte, the battle of Peterwardein cooled the military rage of the barbarians: and other proofs of the Austrian superiority in arms produced a pacification, by which the Banat was restored to the Hungarian realm. The subsequent history of this kingdom being intimately connected with that of Germany, we may here close the separate sketch.

TRANSYLVANIA, THE BUKOVINE, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, DALMATIA, AND THE MILITARY FRONTIERS.

TRANSYLVANIA is bounded on the north by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Galitzia, on the east by Moldavia, on the south by Walachia, and on the west by Hungary. Its length is about 180, and its breadth 120 miles: it contains nearly 14,000 square miles, and is surrounded by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables, and animals, are nearly the same with those of Hungary. The mines are the chief sources of wealth in this country. To the north-east of Deva is a mine which contains gold, mingled with antimony, arsenic, lead, and iron. The air is temperate and salubrious; and the soil is, in many parts, fertile in grain: but agriculture is not sufficiently encouraged. Many vineyards pour forth their luxurious stores, which, however, do not please strangers like the wines of Hungary.

It is remarkable that the Walachians, in this province, exceed the number of the Transylvanians, properly so called; and though, according to the laws of the country, they are not entitled to the rights of free citizens, that prohibition is not rigorously enforced. Many free families are dispersed over the country; and the rest of the race are not oppressed by the government, but acquire consequence and property in various modes, particularly by the breeding of cattle. They are of a

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short stature, but of a strong and compact frame, with expressive features. The women are more industrious than the men; they spin even while they are going to market, with a basket upon the head, and manufacture the greater part of their own apparel and that of their families.

The great land-holders enjoy the remains of feudal authority; and the government has an air of moderation, being conducted in concert with a regular diet, which, however, is more influenced by the crown than a national assembly ought to be. The seat of power is Hermanstadt, which contains about 17,500 inhabitants, and is a large, strong, and well-built city. Clausenburg is situated on a river called the Little Szamos, in a romantic valley, encompassed by high mountains. The greater part of the town was consumed by fire in 1798; but the mischief was gradually repaired. The present town is built in a quadrangular form, and contains some fine churches and elegant streets. About 16,000 persons compose the population.

Transylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms before they could be subdued. It was overrun by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. The present inhabitants retain the same military character. The population of the country is estimated at 1,650,000. The military force consists of about 20,000 men, whose loyalty and courage are undisputed.

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, king of Hungary, introduced Christianity into the country; and it was afterwards governed by a Hungarian viceroy. The various revolutions in the government prove the impatience of the people under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania, as well as 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 pretended oppressions of the nobility, 16,000 men assembled, and committed great outrages on those whose conduct had been obnoxious to them: but, being disappointed in an attempt upon Clausenburg, they promised to separate, and to retire 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 BUKOVINE was formerly a part of Transylvania, and afterwards of Moldavia, but was ceded to the Austrians by the Turks in 1771. It is situated between Moldavia and Galitzia, is about 90 miles long and 50 broad, and contains nearly 3000 square miles, and about 140,000 inhabitants. The country is full of woods, and produces little corn. The people derive their support from the cattle they rear, and the wax and honey afforded to them by their bees. The inhabitants consist of various nations, as Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, Armenians, Jews, and a great number of gypsies. The ordinary language is the Walachian; but the German becomes continually more prevalent. This country has been united by the Austrian government to Galitzia, and is under the same administration. The capital is Tzernowitz, situate on the Pruth, the see of a Greek archbishop.

SCLAVONIA is about 180 miles in length, and 50 in breadth, and contains 9000 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 Styria on the west. The reason why Hungary, Transylvania, Sclavonia, and the other countries subject to the house of Austria in these 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, favored their resistance; and their descendants, notwithstanding the power of the Turks, Austrians, Hungarians, and Polanders, retain the same spirit of independence. 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 Sclavonians are zealous Romanists; but they tolerate the protestants, members of the Greek church, and Jews, whom, however, they do not suffer to hold public offices. They are more industrious than the Hungarians, and apparently more desirous of profiting by the advantages with which nature has favored their country. Their chief towns are Posega, Esseck, Bukova, Carlowitz, and Peter-wardein; of which the second is the most populous, as its inhabitants are about 10,000 in number. The culture of tobacco flourishes greatly near Posega, and the produce is not inferior in quality to that of Hungary. The most fertile county in this province is Sirmia, which affords great quantities of grain, and feeds a multitude of cattle and swine. An excellent kind of red wine is made near Carlowitz; and silk is also an important article of traffic.

CROATIA is bounded on the east by Sclavonia, and on the west by Carniola and Styria. It is a very hilly country; for not only mountainous chains run through the province, but great insulated elevations are dispersed over it. Mines of iron and copper are found in the mountains; but they are not so productive as they might be rendered by diligent exploration and skillful working. At Radoboi a large bed is found, where sulphur often comes pure in balls and veins. The soil is in general barren: yet some parts are very fertile. The kinds of corn most cultivated are maize, barley, buck-wheat, millet, and oats. Pasturage is not followed with due attention: there are few sheep, and their wool is very coarse. The horses are small and weak, inferior even to the worst bred in North-Britain. Of timber there is an abundance, as the sides of the mountains are covered with fine trees; but the trade is not very considerable, either in this or in other articles. Agram, the chief town, is inhabited by 18,500 persons: it is the seat of the governor, the commandant, a catholic bishop, and the tribunal of the district. Warasdin has a castle, which overlooks a convent much frequented as a place of female education; but the town has only 4750 inhabitants, and is consequently neither large nor flourishing. We may here add, that the Croats are lively and active in war, but indolent in peace; that their manners are simple and unsophisticated; and their bigotry keeps pace with their ignorance.

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The name was formerly given to Croatia, Slavonia, and a part of Dalmatia, as a general appellation; but it is now particularly distinguished from those provinces, and from that which is called the Maritime Government or Coast District. It includes the eastern portion of Carniola and the western part of Croatia, and has a population of 470,000.

The MILITARY GOVERNMENT, partly bordering upon Illyria, consists (as might be supposed) almost entirely of armed men. When the Turks had been driven out of Hungary, it became the great object of the Austrian government to defend its frontiers on that side against a renewal of encroachment; and it was therefore resolved that the line which separated the two countries should be placed on a secure basis, by making military service the indispensable condition on which lands in the bordering districts should be holden. This system was gradually adopted; but, after it had long prevailed, it began to be neglected, as no longer necessary. In 1807, however, the whole scheme was re-organised and improved; and the military frontiers, extending from the Bukovine to the Adriatic sea, formed a line of about 500 miles. Regiments both of infantry and cavalry were raised and disciplined; and four circles were formed, each being under the command of a general officer, subject to the supreme direction of a council of war at Vienna. About 80,000 men were thus kept in readiness for the defence of the country; and the inhabitants within the military districts were bound to promote the public service, not only by contributions, but by personal labor in such works as the commanders might point out. The lands which had devolved to the crown, or had been obtained by purchase or exchange, or those estates over whose proprietors the emperor could exercise an authoritative influence, were leased out upon the old feudal tenure; and certain portions were consigned to the management of a patriarch, who superintended the cultivation, and provided for the support of the soldiery. The patriarchs were assisted by the appointment of an agricultural officer, in each company, who, with eleven corporals, made occasional surveys of the district; and a court, composed of the captain, some inferior officers and heads of families, decided disputes, and administered justice in ordinary cases. This government is subdivided into the Transylvanian military frontier, the Banat and Slavonian frontiers, the Warasdin territory, and that of Carlstadt; and the population of the whole is said to amount to 950,000.

DALMATIA extends along the coast from the vicinity of Fiume, so as to include the northern part of Albania; and it also comprehends Morlachia, of which Segna is the capital. This is a royal free-town, fortified both by nature and art, and situated near the sea, in a mountainous and barren soil. Here are twelve churches and two conventual foundations. The governor resides in the old palace, called the Royal Castle. Otto-schatz is a frontier fortification on the 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.

Carlo-pago stands at the foot of a craggy mountain, near the strait which separates the isle of Pago from the continent. It has two harbours, constructed by the order of Joseph II.; and the inhabitants carry on some trade in wood, salt, honey, wax, and fish.

To the southward of Morlachia, the country is mountainous, but fruitful. Spalatro has a fine harbour, and is the see of an archbishop. It exhibits the interesting ruins of the palace of Diocletian. Zara is

another considerable town, so well 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 said to be the best mariners of all Italy. The Dalmatians, who are about 320,000 in number, resemble the Slavonians in their manners, and speak a similar language. They profess the Roman-catholic religion.

In this part of Dalmatia is the small aristocratic state of Poglissa, formerly under the protection of Venice, but now under that of the Austrian government. This state contains about 21,000 inhabitants, and its chief magistrate bears the title of *welike ones*, or great lord, and is chosen annually from some noble Hungarian families which are settled there.

In proceeding to the southward, we approach the ill-peopled territory of Hertzgovina, of which Castel-Nuovo, a place of considerable strength, is the most important town. This district was never fully subdued by the Venetians; nor does it appear that the authority of the Austrian emperor is generally acknowledged by the provincials, some of whose tribes are in an unsettled state.

To the north-east of Hertzgovina, is the territory of Montenegro, inhabited by a remarkable community, partly of Grecian, and partly of Slavonic origin. Its population, having been frequently diminished by war and famine, scarcely exceeds 55,000. The men are in general tall and well-formed, uncommonly brave, and high-spirited; they endure hardships without repining, but will not submit to an insult. They are hospitable and friendly, and, with occasional exceptions, just in their dealings. They attend more to pasturage than to agriculture, which they leave chiefly to the women. They employ themselves only in such manufactures as appear to them to be absolutely necessary, and they have much less trade than they might easily command. Few of them can either read or write: yet they cultivate both oratory and poetry. They have no regular code or system of law; but the chiefs try offenders and decide civil causes, with the allowance of an appeal to the bishop. The Turks claim authority over the Montenegrins, but do not take very active measures to subdue them, being content with desultory hostilities. The Russians profess to be the protectors of the state, and allow a pension to the bishop, but do not arbitrarily interfere in the government, which is at present exercised by the prelate, with the aid of a temporal governor. The established religion is that of the Greek church; but, in many of the villages, the inhabitants follow the catholic system. Gnegussi is the seat of the governor, and Cethigné that of the bishop: but both places are rather villages than considerable towns. The houses are built in the most irregular way, almost every housekeeper being his own architect. Mats or carpets, spread out upon the floor, serve for beds; paltry stools, and sometimes large stones, are the substitutes for chairs; and tables are far from being in general use. The churches and monasteries, however, being deemed worthy of greater care and attention, are well built by foreign artisans.

Near the Albanian frontier is Cattaro, a small but strong town, environed by rocky heights, which even obscure the face of day. About thirty-five miles from this town, stands the city of Ragusa, which extends its sway over a neighbouring territory of 350 square miles. Its harbour, formed by the isle of Cronia, is safe and commodious; and its fortifications enabled it, in 1806, to withstand a vigorous siege from the Montenegrins, who were assisted by a Russian armament: yet it would not have so effectually resisted, if it had not been garrisoned by the French,

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who had prevailed upon the inhabitants by plausible pretences to admit them. When Dalmatia changed its masters, in consequence of the success of the allies in Germany, Ragusa also shook off the yoke; and it now enjoys some remains of privilege, under the protection of Austria. The city is not above two miles in circumference; but it is well-built, and contains some handsome edifices. The Ragusans profess the Romish religion; but other persuasions and modes of worship are tolerated. Almost all the citizens are traders. The language of the lowest class is the Sclavonian, while others 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 KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA,

AND THE

PRUSSIAN DOMINIONS IN GENERAL.

EXTENT AND SITUATION OF THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA PROPER.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 240	} between { 17 and 23, 30, East longitude. 53 and 55 North latitude.
Breadth 140	

NAME.] THE name of Prussia is derived from its ancient inhabitants, the Borussi, or Porussi; so called from the Sclavonic word *po*, near, and *Russi*; signifying the people who lived near the Russians.

BOUNDARIES.] Prussia, properly so called, is bounded on the north by the Baltic sea and the Russian territories, on the east by Lithuania, on the south by Great-Poland and Silesia, and on the west by Brandenburg and Pomerania.

DIVISIONS.] The whole Prussian monarchy is now so extensive, as to stretch with little interruption from the borders of Lithuania to the Rhine and the Moselle. Its principal divisions may thus be enumerated; eastern (formerly ducal) Prussia; western Prussia; the grand duchy of Posen; Silesia, Brandenburg, and the grand duchy of the Lower Rhine.

Other territories are supposed to swell the whole number of souls, subject to the same prince, to the amount of twelve millions.

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 appear in different parts of the country. It also abounds in lakes, the principal of which are the Sperling See, the Maner See, and the Gneserich Lake. The first is 18 miles long and as many broad. It is said, that East-Prussia contains 300 lakes, and West-Prussia 160; but many of these are mere pools.

RIVERS, CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Vistula, the Pregel, the Memel, the Netze, the Bro, and the Warte. The two canals called Frederic's canals, and that of Bromberg, 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 50 miles in length, and from three to seven in breadth. 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 about the depth of 100 feet, and is often washed on shore in stormy weather. 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 fruit, 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 part of Germany.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Königsberg, the capital of Prussia Proper, is partly situated on an island formed by the Pregel, over which it has seven bridges, and partly on the main land. With its suburbs it is seven miles in circumference, and contains about 63,000 inhabitants. Many of its houses are large and elegant, and some of the public buildings are stately and magnificent. It has an university, which is well supplied with professors; several other respectable seminaries, and many well-conducted charitable institutions. The majority of the inhabitants are Lutherans; but Calvinists, catholics, and Jews, are mingled with them. They carry on a great trade; yet only small vessels can reach the town; and, therefore, it has been found expedient to make use of Pillau, a town 30 miles distant, as the port of Königsberg. In 1817, 1098 vessels entered that harbour for commercial purposes: 309 of these were the ships of Prussian subjects, 144 were British, and 269 sailed from Dutch and Belgian ports. In some of the subsequent years, the number exceeded that amount.

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 appears by its strong breast-works to have formerly served as a fortress. Here is also a spacious palace, built in the Gothic style.

Elbing, which is also in West-Prussia, near the Frisch-haff, is a thriving commercial town. Before the English established their magazines there, as a company of merchants, the town had not an extensive trade; but, from that time, its traffic gradually increased. About 19,000 persons compose the population.

Memel, situated at the extremity of East-Prussia, surpasses Elbing in the quantity and value of its exports, among which timber is a leading article. The town is rendered defensible by strong works; the houses, if not generally handsome or elegant, are sufficiently large and commodious; and the harbour is considered, by many merchants and mariners, as the best in the Baltic.

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 Polanders have been already described.

COMMERCE.] Prussia is not inconsiderable in the production of copper, and stockings, and of linseed, amber, and modities.

RELIGION.] The religions are those of the papists, and anti-toleration.

UNIVERSITY.] Königsberg was founded in 1506, by Joachim Polish university, schools and seminaries, and eminent literary

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CONSTITUTION.] The king is absolute through a regency of great burgrave, councils, and lords of state, and these institutions

REVENUE.] A million and a half, and augmented down of his successor

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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 corn, hemp, flax, linnseed, amber, pot-ash, tobacco, bristles, tallow, wax, and other commodities.

RELIGION.] The religion of Prussia is very tolerant. The established religions are those of the Lutherans and Calvinists, chiefly the former; but papists, antipædobaptists, and all other sectaries, are indulged with toleration.

UNIVERSITIES, LITERATURE, LANGUAGE.] The university of Königsberg was founded in 1544; that of Frankfort on the Oder in 1506, by Joachim, elector of Brandenburg. To these we may add the Polish university of Posen, now subject to Prussia. There are many schools and seminaries in the kingdom, but it has produced few men of eminent literary abilities.

The language of Prussia is the German; but, in the territory acquired from Poland, the Polish, as may be expected, prevails.

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; namely, the great master, the great burgrave, chancellor, and marshal. There are also some other councils, and 37 bailiwics. The provincial states consist of counselors of state, and of deputies from the nobility and commons. Beside these institutions, Frederic III. erected a board of commerce and navigation.

REVENUE.] Frederic I. had a scanty revenue, not perhaps exceeding a million and a half of pounds sterling. His son increased it to about two millions; and the great Frederic is said to have derived, from his augmented dominions, about five millions and a half. The extravagance of his successor dissipated more than the regular produce of his resources, and consequently involved the nation in debt. The present king and his people were so severely harassed, and so shamefully plundered by the French, both before and after the peace of Tilsit, that the revenue must have been reduced to a very small amount, while the public debt was enormously augmented. The baron Bignon calculates the encumbrance of the nation, at the time of the pacification of Paris, in 1814, at a very high amount. The arrears of the old debt, he says, were 100 millions of francs, or 4,166,666 pounds sterling: the debt, contracted during the exercise of French tyranny and rapine over the kingdom, might be estimated at six times that amount: the provincial debts were above 8,300,000 pounds; and the stores furnished to the French army, without an equivalent, were valued at four millions. But the Prussian share of the money, paid by France, according to the treaty of 1815, indemnified the government in a considerable degree, and, after the return of peace, the public debt was put into a proper train of liquidation.

ARMY.] Since the time of that elector who became the first king of Prussia, and who, even in time of peace, maintained an army of 100,000 men, the government of that country has exhibited a form, perhaps, more decidedly military than that of any other state in Europe. The present king, in the year 1805, is said to have had 250,000 men ready for action, when the Austrian emperor was exposed to such danger, as to require the aid of every prince who had any regard for the welfare of Germany and the independence of the continental powers. But his present

establishment is on a more limited scale, though higher than a free nation would suffer.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] There are six orders of knighthood; the order of Concord, instituted by Christian Ernest, margrave of Brandenburg, in 1660, to distinguish the part he had acted in restoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. The elector Frederic, in 1685, instituted the order of Generosity. The knights wear a cross of eight points, pendent to a blue riband. The same prince founded the order of the Black Eagle in the year 1700, the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, being limited to thirty. The knights wear on the left side of the coat a silver star, in the middle of which is a black eagle, with the motto *Sum Cuique*. The order of Merit was instituted by Frederic III., in 1740, to reward the merit of persons either in arms or arts, without distinction of birth, religion, or country. That prince likewise established the orders of St. Stephen and St. John.

HISTORY.] The ancient history of Prussia is lost in the clouds of fiction and romance. The early inhabitants, the brave and warlike descendants of the Sclavonians, 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; and they continued independent and pagans, till the knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1227, undertook their conversion by the edge of the sword. A long series of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Prussia were almost extirpated by the religious knights, who, after committing the most horrible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. In 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights 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, the last grand-master of the Teutonic order, laid aside the habit of his order, embraced Lutheranism, and concluded a peace at Cracow, by which he was acknowledged duke of the eastern part of Prussia, but was to hold it as a fief of Poland. In 1657, the elector Frederic William of Brandenburg, deservedly called the Great, shook off the Polish yoke; and he and his descendants were declared 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 followed that persuasion, the protestant interest favored them so much, that Frederic, the son of Frederic William the Great, was raised in 1701 to the dignity of king of Prussia, in a solemn assembly of the states, and soon after acknowledged as such by all the powers of Christendom. His grandson, Frederic III., in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this prince's talents for government, but expatiates on those of his own father, Frederic William, who succeeded in 1713. This prince, who was endowed with strong natural abilities, 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. The new monarch improved the arts of peace as

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well as of war, and distinguished himself as a poet, philosopher, and legislator. Some of the principal transactions of his reign have been already related in our sketch of the history of Germany. In 1783 he published a rescript, signifying his pleasure that no kneeling should in future be practised in honor 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 manufactures, settling colonies, relieving distress, and in other purposes of philanthropy and policy. He died in 1797, after having preserved his dominions in peace, with only a slight interruption, from the year 1763.

Frederic William II. (or Frederic IV.), the nephew of the philosopher, commenced his reign with a reform of abuses; but he did not uniformly act the part of a patriot. Indolence and love of pleasure diverted his attention from public duties, and he quickly lost the reputation which he was beginning to acquire. The spirit which he displayed, however, in the cause of his brother-in-law the prince of Orange, for whom he procured, by the reduction of Amsterdam, a considerable augmentation of power, was applauded by the princes of Europe. He also distinguished himself by his early display of zeal against the French revolutionists, whom he hoped to crush in one campaign; but his expedition was unfortunate, and he returned with a diminished and dispirited army. In 1794, while he received a subsidy from Great-Britain on condition of acting with vigor against the French, he employed his troops in subduing Poland; of which realm he added a considerable portion to the share seized by his uncle. Content with this success, he concluded peace with France; but he did not long enjoy that voluptuous repose which he wished to obtain; for he died in November, 1797. His son of the same name ascended the throne. This prince, for many years, studiously observed a system of neutrality, which exposed him to the obloquy of the zealots. He seemed inclined to take up arms, in 1805, when the Austrians were engaged in a new war with France: but he suffered that opportunity to elapse; and, when he roused himself in the following year, he met with that ill success which has been already noticed in the history of France. Although he derived powerful aid from Russia, he found it expedient, in 1807, to agree to a treaty, by which he was involved in a state of humiliation and even of distress. He was deprived nearly of one half of his dominions; and, in the portion which he retained, he was insulted by the intrusion of French troops, and pillaged by arbitrary commissaries. Aware of the overbearing spirit of his great enemy, he did not loudly complain of this treatment, but submitted to it with philosophic calmness, waiting for an opportunity of vigorous exertion and of just revenge. In this state of comparative insignificance he remained above five years; and his disgrace seemed to be completed by that subserviency which rendered him an ally of France, in 1812, against his former friend, the Russian emperor. He probably hoped, that his arrogant oppressor might meet with such a reverse of fortune in his northern expedition, as would encourage other powers to form a new confederacy against him: yet a benevolent king must have felt poignant regret at the loss of so many of his own subjects as perished in that iniquitous enterprise. When the result seemed to portend the ruin of the tyrant, Frederic resolved to take arms against him. For several years, he had endeavoured, as far as the jealous vigilance of the French would allow him, to keep up a military spirit among his people, and to prepare them by discipline for a future war. In the preceding war against France, they had not main-

tained their former reputation: but their zeal was now as fervent as that of their sovereign, on whose foes they were ready to wreak their vengeance. They displayed great courage in the sanguinary conflicts of the year 1813: they shared the dangers and glory of that invasion which was followed by the reduction of Paris: and, when the war again broke out, they promoted the success of the British arms at Waterloo. By these services they procured for the king, not merely a restitution of territories, but a greater extent of dominion than he had ever before possessed.

Frederic William III., or Frederic V., was born August 3, 1770; and, in 1793, married Louisa-Augusta-Wilhelmina-Amelia, princess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, who died in 1810, and by whom he has issue—

Frederic-William, born October 15, 1795.

Frederic-William-Louis, born March 22, 1797.

Frederica-Louisa-Charlotta-Wilhelmina, born July 13, 1798.

Charles-Frederic-Alexander, born June 29, 1801.

Frederica-Wilhelmina-Alexandrina, born February 23, 1803.

Louisa-Augusta-Wilhelmina-Amelia, born February 1, 1808

SILESIA.

SILESIA is bounded on the north by Brandenburg and Lusatia, on the east by Galitzia 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 two millions of people. The Austrian part contains 1290 square miles, and about 300,000 inhabitants.

Lower Silesia is divided into the territories of Breslau, Brieg, Schweidnitz, Jauer, Lignitz, Wohlau, and Glogau, which are in direct subservery to the Prussian monarch, beside such lordships as have some of his subjects for their masters; and the Upper into the immediate principalities of Munsterburg, Oppeln, and Ratibor, beside some mediate principalities and inferior lordships. The Austrian portion is divided into the circles of Jagerndorf and Teschen.

This province is separated from Bohemia by the Riesengebirge, or Giant-Mountains. The Elbe and Oder have their sources among these mountains; the latter of which divides the country nearly into two equal parts. Beside these, the principal rivers are the Vistula, Niesse, Oppa, Bober, Quies, and Elsa. In the northern parts are several small lakes and morasses. The mountainous parts contain mines of gold and silver, but they are not rendered productive: they also afford copper, lead, iron, sulphur, salt-petre, alum, and vitriol. The soil, in the vicinity of South-Prussia and Lusatia, is sandy, and therefore not very fruitful; but this deficiency is compensated by the fertility of the other and larger part of Silesia, which produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, maize, buck-wheat, linseed, peas, hops, and madder. Tar, pitch, and resin, are made from the pine and fir, and the larch-trees yield turpentine. The sheep of this country are said to be very profitable on account of the excellence of their wool. The wild animals are lynxes, which frequent only the mountainous parts; a few bears and wolves; and foxes, weasels, otters,

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and beavers. In the Oder are caught salmon, sturgeon, 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: but this is an apparent exaggeration. The capital is Breslau, situated at the confluence of the Oder with the small river Ohlau, which runs through several of the streets. It is a large well-built fortified city, containing about 73,000 inhabitants, one-third of whom are catholics, while nine-tenths of the other two-thirds are Lutherans; yet the protestants have only nine churches, while the catholics have twenty-six. The power and influence of the latter have been considerably impaired by the present king, who has suppressed many of their monastic foundations: but, in other respects, they have full toleration. 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 were added to the body of the church by different bishops. The chief protestant place of worship 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 Medici, 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 five books are wholly contained within a compass of ten inches in length and three in width. Breslau has an university, which was founded in 1702 by the emperor Leopold: about 550 students usually belong to it.

Schweidnitz is a handsome town, and its fortifications are very considerable. It contains 7500 inhabitants, about one-fourth of whom are catholics; and it claims the intolerant and disgraceful privilege of suffering no Jews within its walls; but the rigor of this privilege is softened by modern humanity. Brieg is likewise a well-built town, and the seat of government for Upper-Silesia. It is occupied by 8500 persons. Troppau is regarded as the capital of Austrian Silesia; but it is not so populous or flourishing as Teschen, which contains about 5500 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 the country has fallen under the dominion of the kings of Prussia, commerce has been considerably improved, and some 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 Suevoi, a Teutonic nation. In the seventh century the Sclavonians made themselves masters of the country. The people 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 1740, the king of Prussia claimed certain principalities of Silesia, and supported his claim so powerfully by his arms, that the 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 situated near the north-east frontier of Bohe-

nia, and is about 40 miles in length and 25 in breadth. It is surrounded 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 well-fortified place, inhabited by 7500 persons, many of whom are employed to great advantage in the manufactures of leather and linen.

SWITZERLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 230 } Breadth 120 }	between	{ 6 and 11 East longitude. { 47, 45, North latitude.

Containing 13,900 square miles, with more than 161 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 Rheti on the east. The modern name seems to be derived from that of the canton of Schweitz, one of the earliest in forming the league by which the liberty of the country was asserted against the dukes of Austria. While it was under the French yoke, it bore the name of the Helvetic Republic.

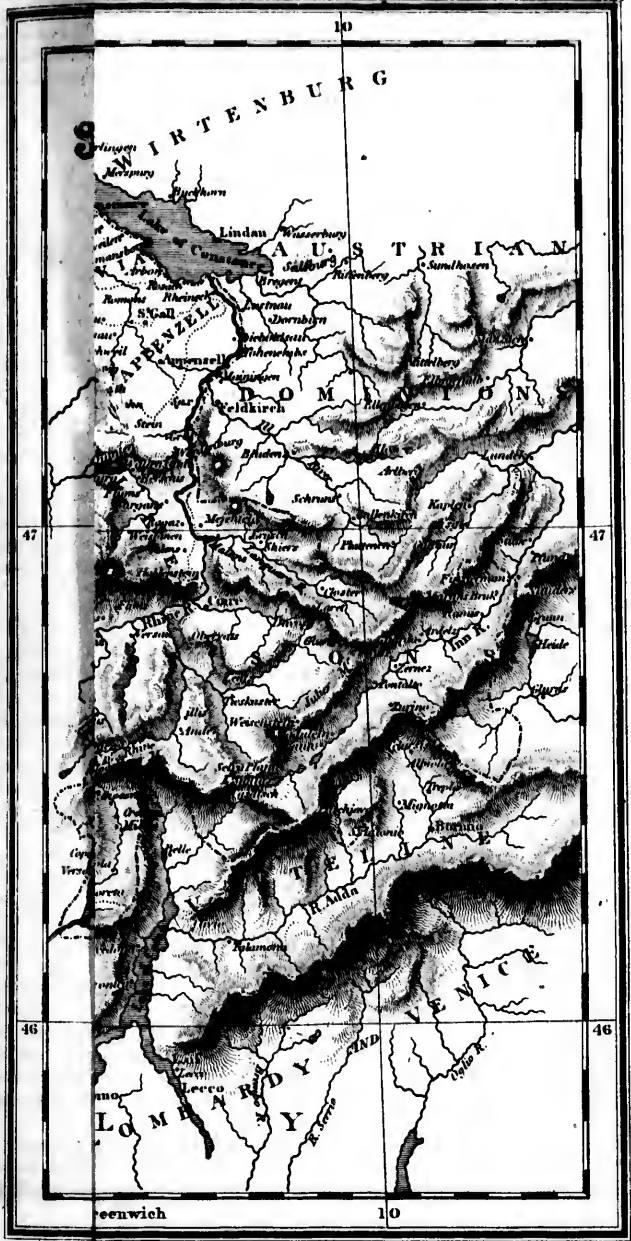
BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded on the north by the circle of Swabia in Germany, on the east by Tyrol, on the south by Italy, and on the west by France.

DIVISIONS.] Switzerland, before the year 1798, was divided into thirteen cantons; namely, Zurich, Bern, Lucern, Uri, Schweitz, Unterwalden, Zug, Glarus, Basil or Basle, Freyburg, Soleure or Solothurn, Schaffhausen, and Appenzel. Beside these there were certain districts and towns which were the subjects of the cantons, and some small states who were their allies. New arrangements were made, in 1802, after that partial insurrection which was soon suppressed by the power of France. Nineteen cantons were then formed by the order of Bonaparte, the new ones being Argovia or Aargau, the Grison territory, Tessin, St. Gall, Thurgau, and the Pays de Vaud. When the Swiss were restored to a state of independence by the allies, a new division was adjusted by the congress of Vienna; or we may rather say that three cantons were incorporated with the rest; namely, the republics of the Valais and Geneva, and the principality of Neuf-chatel. The last-mentioned territory, with the county of Valengin, had been subject to the king of Prussia from the year 1707, when it was ceded to him by the states, on the failure of the line of princes: but, being rendered a very powerful monarch by the result of the Anti-Gallican league, he condescended to resign this insignificant appendage of his crown.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS.] The face of Switzerland is in general so mountainous, that even the parts of it accounted level abound with such eminences as in other countries would be called mountains.

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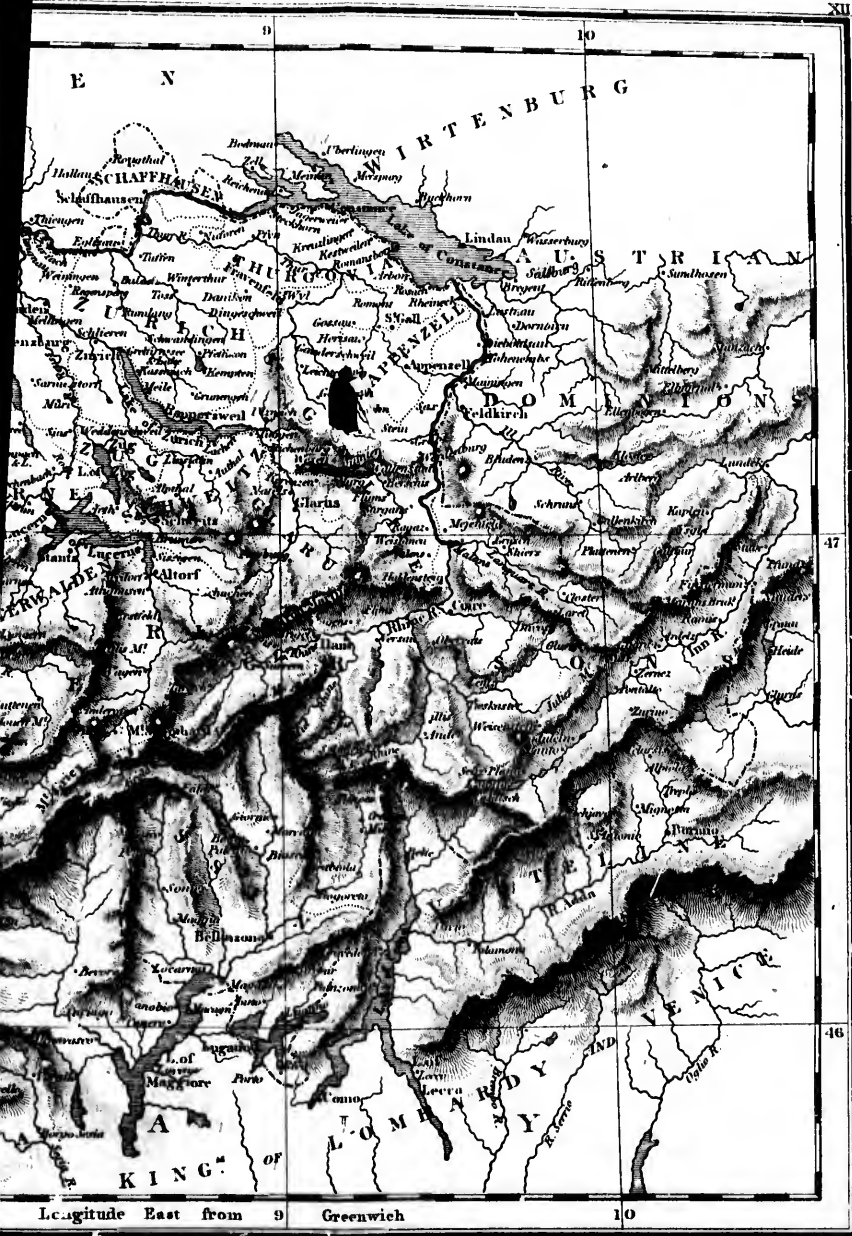


SWITZERLAND.

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British Statute Miles



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Nature seems here to have formed every thing on her grandest scale. The towering summits of stupendous mountains, dreadful precipices, glaciers which resemble seas of ice, rocks in varied and fantastic forms, excite astonishment and awe; while occasional contrasts are afforded by undulating and wooded slopes, verdant vales, and scenes of cultivation. From the south-west to the north-east a mountainous chain pervades the country. The most conspicuous heights are the ridges of Mount-Jura (which the Swiss share with the French), the Finster Aar-horn, the Jung-frau or Virgin, the Eiger, the Schreck-horn, the Twins, and St. Gothard: but all these are inferior in height to Mont-Blanc, which, though it borders on Switzerland, is situated within the frontiers of Savoy.

LAKES.] The principal lakes of Switzerland are, that of Constance, also called the Boden-Sea, which is about 45 miles in length and 15 in breadth; and the lake of Geneva, about 40 miles long, and 10 at its greatest breadth. Other lakes are those of Neuf-chatel, Lucern, Zurich, Thun, Bienne or Biel, Brientz, and Wallenstadt. The picturesque beauties of some of these lakes, particularly that of Geneva, are admired by all persons of taste.

RIVERS.] The Rhine is the chief river of Switzerland. It is formed by the confluence of three streams. One rises in a mountain called Badur, a part of the Crispalt chain: the second originates in Mount-Luckmanier, and, after a course of 24 miles, joins the former near Dissentis; and the third rises in the Vogelsberg. The first and the last unite near Coire, and the river then becomes navigable for rafts. It proceeds to the northward, and passes through the lake of Constance, whence it flows to the westward until it reaches Basle. It then takes a northerly course, separating Suabia from Alsace; receives the Maine near Mentz, and the Moselle near Coblentz; and, near Fort-Schenck in Guelderland, is divided into two branches; one of which, called the Wahal, is the Maes at the isle of Bommel, while the other, flowing to the north, proceeds in two channels, one only retaining the original name of the river. At Duerstede, another disjunction takes place, one stream being called the Leck, the other the crooked Rhine. This forms two subsequent divisions, namely, the Vercht, and the proper Rhine. One falls into the Zuyder-Zee: the other, traversing South-Holland in a scanty stream, joins the sea at Catwyck.

The Rhone rises in Mount-Furca, runs impetuously to the lake of Geneva, and, having passed through that body of water without appearing to mix with it, pursues its course amidst a romantic country into France. The Aar makes its first appearance in a valley at the foot of Mount-Schreckhorn, passes through the lakes of Brientz and Thun, and falls into the Rhine near Zurzach.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, copper, virgin sulphur, and springs of mineral waters. Copper and lead are also found, but not abundantly; and quarries of rock salt are met with, particularly in the Pays de Vaud. Among the mineral waters, the most celebrated are those of Pfeffer, between Sargans and the Rhine, recommended for various chrouical disorders.

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 very severe, some of the eminences being scarcely ever free from snow. 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. With regard to fertility, the canton of Thurgau is superior to most of the others, while that of Appenzel is particularly barren, and has scarcely a field of corn in its whole extent. It ought to be observed, that the agriculture of Switzerland has been considerably improved by the advice of Fellenberg, who keeps a great school near Bern for the particular promotion of that art, as well as for general education.

There is, perhaps, no country in the world, except Holland, where the numerous effects of unwearied and persevering industry are more remarkably conspicuous than in Switzerland. In passing over the mountainous parts, the traveler is struck with admiration, when he observes rocks that were formerly barren now planted with vines, or abounding with rich pasture, and marks 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 vine-yards, 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 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 snow-clad mountains of a prodigious height. These varieties are found within a smaller space in the Valais, than in any other canton. In that territory, contrasts between objects the most imposing, the most savage, and the most agreeable, every-where present themselves.

[VEGETABLES AND ANIMALS.] Switzerland produces wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp; plenty of apples, pears, grapes which afford excellent wine, nuts, cherries, plums, and chesnuts; the parts toward Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and most of the cantons have timber. Beside game, fish, and fowl, there are found, in some of the higher and more inaccessible parts of the Alps, the bouquetin (or goat of the rocks) and the chamois, whose activity in soaring along the steep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of each animal is of so hot a nature, that the inhabitants of some of these mountains, who are subject to the pleurisy, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that disorder. The chase of the chamois is a favorite amusement; and even the great danger which attends it does not sufficiently check the practice. Many of the hunters lose their lives among precipitous rocks; and, when the chase is long and difficult, some of the rash adventurers perish by the united attacks of cold and hunger. The marmot is also hunted, but with less danger than the chamois, because it does not so much entangle the *chasseur* among the precipices. Wolves likewise haunt the Alps; and here are also yellow and white foxes, which in winter sometimes come down into the valleys.

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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 forward by the pressure of their own weight, and 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, where-ever the declivity is beyond thirty or forty degrees. In traveling over these glaciers, a long pole spiked with iron, and shoes guarded by spikes of the same metal, are considered as indispensable accompaniments; but these will not always secure the adventurer.

Some of the Alpine passes in this country are tremendously grand. Those of St. Gothard and the Simplon are the most frequented. The former mountain is 8300 feet above the level of the Mediterranean; the latter, 6600 feet. To lessen the dangers of these terrific spots, roads have been formed along the edges of precipices, bridges have been thrown over frightful chasms, and tunnels cut through rocks; and the seeming obstacles interposed by nature have been removed by the skill and boldness of art. From the baths of Leuk, the pass over the Gemmi is extremely hazardous; and, in descending, the path hurries the adventurer down the almost perpendicular side of the mountain.

Near Schaffhausen is a tremendous cataract, down which the Rhine dashes headlong from a height of fifty feet. Viewed in front, it appears divided into three cascades, by two craggy rocks. The foaming waters shoot over, join themselves, separate, and change their forms with such rapidity, that the eye is unable to follow them. The spray which rises from the bottom is so rarefied, that it is carried away by the wind like dust; and it occasionally exhibits rainbows of exquisite beauty.

Near Rosinere 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 labored on it for twenty-five years. It contains a chapel; a parlor twenty-eight paces in length, twelve in breadth, and twenty feet in height; a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, all cut out of the rock.

At Schaffhausen was a very extraordinary bridge over the Rhine, admired for the singularity of its architecture. The river is extremely rapid, and had already destroyed several stone bridges of the strongest construction, when Grubenman, a carpenter of Appenzel, offered to throw a wooden bridge of a single arch across the river, which is 365 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. He was obliged to obey, and thus exercised his skill: 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 it without danger. If we consider the boldness of the plan and construction, it must appear extraordinary that the architect had not the least tincture of literature, was totally ignorant of mathematics, and not versed in the theory of mechanics. The bridge was finished in less than three years, and cost about 8,000*l.* sterling. It was destroyed, in 1799, by the French invaders.

At the famous pass of *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is carried through a solid rock near fifty feet thick; the height of the arch is twenty-six, and its breadth twenty-five.

At Lucern is to be seen a topographical representation of the most mountainous parts of Switzerland, executed by general Pfiffer. It is a model in relief, and well deserves attention. It is about twelve feet long, and nine and a half broad. The composition is principally a mastic of charcoal, lime, clay, a little pitch, with a thin coat of wax: and is so hard as to be trodden upon without receiving the least damage. The whole is painted with different colors, representing the objects as they appear in nature. Not only the woods of oak, beech, pine, and other trees, are distinguished, but also 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 comprises mountains, forests, lakes, towns, villages, and even cottages. The general took his elevations from the level of the lake of Lucern, which is about fourteen hundred feet above the Mediterranean. This model conveys a sublime picture of immense Alps piled one upon another, as if the story of the Titans were realised, and they had succeeded in heaping Ossa upon Pelion, and Olympus upon Ossa. There is also at Zurich a model of this romantic country, more curious and accurate than that of which the people of Lucern boast.

POPULATION.] It was computed, in 1799, that the number of people in Switzerland, including the allies of the cantons, amounted to two millions, of which the Bernese territory contained more than a sixth part; but this calculation was not generally admitted as indisputable; and it is probable that the estimate which reduced the amount to 1,866,700 was nearer to the truth. At present, the population seems nearly to reach the amount of 2,250,000.

NATIONAL CHARACTERS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] 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, with a love of freedom, are the most distinguishing characteristics of the inhabitants of Switzerland. A striking proof of the simplicity and openness of manners of this people, and of astonishing confidence, is mentioned by Mr. Coxe, who says, 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, for which the owners call in the evening. They are in general an enlightened nation; the common people are more intelligent than the same rank of men in most other countries; a taste for literature is prevalent among those who are in better circumstances, and even among many of the lowest rank; and a genuine and artless good-breeding is particularly conspicuous in the Swiss gentry. On the first entrance into this country, the traveler cannot but observe the air of content which appears in the countenances of the inhabit-

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ants. 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 them from those nations who labor under the oppressions of despotic government. Even the Swiss cottages convey the liveliest image of neatness and simplicity, and strongly impress upon the observer a pleasing conviction of the ease and comfort of the inmates. 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. The *chalets*, or mountain-houses, being much larger and more curious than the cottages or huts, deserve more particular notice. They are not all built on the same plan; but many of them are constructed in the following manner. Posts of larch or the ordinary fir are fixed into the earth, and the sides of the house are formed of well-seasoned and durable timber connected with these posts. The sloping roof is composed of large shingles, intermingled with flag-stones. The ground-floor is occupied by horses, asses, mules, oxen, cows, sheep, and goats, and it also serves for a store-room. An outside staircase leads to the first floor, which is more particularly inhabited by the family. A work-shop is also fitted up, and even a library is sometimes an appendage of the establishment.

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 prohibited in some of the cantons; and even the head-dresses of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are also strictly forbidden; and, in other games, the person who loses a sum exceeding nine shillings of our money, incurs a considerable fine. The diversions of the Swiss, therefore, are chiefly of the active kind; and, as their time is not wasted in games of chance, many of them employ a part of their leisure hours in reading, to the great improvement of their understandings. The youth are diligently trained to various exercises, such as running, wrestling, throwing the hammer, and shooting both with the cross-bow and the musquet. The men, in their persons, resemble the Germans, and the women are rather comely than handsome.

The inhabitants in some parts of this country, particularly in the Valais, are subject to *goitres*, or excrescences of flesh that grow from the throat, and often increase to an enormous size; and (what is more extraordinary) idiotism also abounds among them. It was concluded by many observers, that the excrescences in question arose from the use of snow water; but, as they are found in the environs of Naples, and also in the island of Sumatra, this opinion has given way to a more probable conjecture, importing that, where goitres are common, the springs are impregnated with a calcareous matter called *tuf*, which, though apparently dissolved, may be introduced in impalpable particles into the glands of the throat. Judging from some accounts, we might suppose that the natives, without exception, are either idiots or goitrous; but, 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 respect these idiots, and even consider them as *blessings from heaven*, and as *souls of God without sin*; and this opinion has a 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. This practice ought not to be tolerated by the government, as idiotism may thus become hereditary.

CHIEF TOWNS, AND EDIFICES.] Bern, pleasantly situated on a

declivity near the Aar, is a neat and handsome city, the streets being wide and long, and the three principal ones having piazzas or arcades on both sides. It is fortified on the western side with a wall, fosse, and bastions. The cathedral, founded in 1421, is a stately Gothic edifice; and the other churches do not disgrace the general beauty of the town. The college was re-organised in 1805, and now consists of an elementary school, a classical school, and an academical institution, to which belong professors of philology, mathematics, divinity, law, and medicine. The town is not enlivened with the bustle of trade, or dignified by parade or splendor of living, though many of the citizens are rich.

A more populous town than Bern is Basle or Basle, which also has a much greater share of trade, as all merchandise from Germany, Holland, and other parts of the continent, must pass through it. It is famous for the manufacture of ribands; other silken articles are also neatly fabricated by the inhabitants, who are likewise employed in the cotton and linen branches. It is not a fine or handsome town, though its principal church and some other buildings are worthy of notice. The town-house, which stands on the Birsee, is supported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. The situation of Basle is pleasing; the Rhine divides it into the upper and lower towns; and it is considered as one of the keys of Switzerland. It has a population of 15,500.

Zurich is also a manufacturing and commercial town, and a *dépot* for articles from Italy and the Netherlands. It is not in general well-built; but it has many edifices of rich and respectable appearance, and a cathedral with two square towers, surmounted by octagonal spires. In this church may be seen the monument of Lavater, the celebrated physiognomist, who was killed upon the bridge in the town, in an insurrection of the people, by a French soldier. The *Wasser-kirch*, or Water-Church, is converted into a public library, in which, among many valuable manuscripts, are some letters, written in a style of pure Latinity, by lady Jane Grey, the unfortunate and innocent usurper, to Bullinger, the reformer. Several literary and scientific societies are established in this town; and among its inhabitants are some men of learning and research, and many who unite polished manners with strict integrity; yet they are not, in general, so social or well-bred as the people of many other towns, and their custom of separating the sexes, in their conversational meetings, cannot be approved by the admirers of the fair.

Lucern is the capital of that state which was regarded as the head of the catholic cantons. It borders upon the northern extremity of a lake which abounds in picturesque scenery; the Reuss flows in a broad and rapid current through the town, where it is crossed by two bridges, which, with the lofty mountain of Pilate in the distance, with woods, meadows, and pastures on one side, and some fine buildings on the other, form an agreeable assemblage of objects of considerable diversity and interest. As the Reuss flows into the Rhine, the inhabitants trade with Germany; and, as the town is on the road to Mount St. Gothard, they have also a great intercourse with Italy.

Soleure, which is also the capital of a catholic canton, is more remarkable for its antiquity than for the general beauty and elegance of its buildings: yet it has a fine church and college, formerly belonging to the Jesuits, a very large monastery of the Cordeliers, and a handsome town-house. It occupies a hill, sloping toward the Aar; and its fortifications give it a respectable appearance.

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Geneva is far more populous than any of the capitals of the old cantons; for it contains about 25,000 inhabitants. It is situated at the south-western extremity of the Leman Lake. "Two rapid streams (says a modern tourist) issue from this point of the lake, and, leaving a small island between, unite into one precipitous current called the Rhone, after they have passed through the town, which is built on both sides, but with its principal portion toward the south. There is a large street which is distinguished by the singular construction of arcades raised as high as the tops of the houses, and dissimilar from the rows at Chester, having the whole space perfectly open from the bottom to the top." The houses in general are built of free-stone, with limestone basements; and most of the streets are wide and well-paved. The public structures are large and commodious rather than magnificent. The university is well frequented, and the professors are usually selected for merit, not promoted by interest and cabal. The public library is rendered more useful than most institutions of that kind, by the permission of borrowing books—a more encouraging practice than that of obliging the votaries of literature to study within the walls of the building. Among the manufactures of Geneva, those of clocks and watches are particularly celebrated; but an Englishman may affirm, without that excess of national vanity which would deviate from truth, that his countrymen are still more expert in the fabrication of those useful and ornamental articles.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] Linen, dimity, lace, stockings, gloves, handkerchiefs, ribands, silk, woollen cloth, and printed cotton, are common in Switzerland; and the inhabitants, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, fabricate silk and velvet. They 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, beside all sorts of manufactured goods.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The old constitution and government of Switzerland were very complicated, as the cantons, though belonging to the same body, were partly aristocratic, and partly democratic. Every canton was absolute in its own jurisdiction; but those of Bern, Zurich, and Lucern, with other dependencies, were aristocratic, with a certain mixture of democracy, Bern excepted. Those of Uri, Schwytz, Unterwalden, Zug, Glarus, and Appenzel, were democratic. Basle, 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 neighbours, 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 consisted of prefectures, each of which, though subject to the other two, by purchase or otherwise, preserved its 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. This assembly consisted of two deputies from each canton, beside one from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and

Bienna. It was observed by Mr. Coxe, before the French revolution broke out, that there was no country in which happiness and content more generally prevailed among the people; for, whether the government was aristocratic, democratic, or mixed, a spirit of liberty pervaded and actuated the several constitutions; so that even the oligarchic states (which, of all others, are usually the most tyrannical) were here peculiarly mild; and the property of the subject was securely guarded against every kind of violation. A harmony was maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their sumptuary laws, and equal division of their fortunes among their children, seemed to ensure its continuance. There was no part of Europe which contained, within the same extent of region, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of governments, as were collected in this remarkable country; and yet, with such wisdom was the Helvetic union composed, and so little were the Swiss actuated by the spirit of conquest, that, since the complete establishment of their general confederacy, and till the unprovoked invasion of their country by the French, they scarcely ever had occasion to employ their arms against a foreign enemy, and had no commotions among themselves, except such as were 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 1802, this constitution was likewise abolished by the authority of the first consul of France, and another presented for acceptance, which the majority of the Swiss 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 canton had its distinct internal government, which, in seven of them, (Schweitz, Appenzel, Glarus, Unterwalden, Uri, Zug, and the Grisons,) was of the democratic kind, all the male inhabitants above twenty years of age having voices in the *landesgemeine*, or assembly, in which all laws and regulations proposed by the magistrates and public officers were discussed. The governments of seven others, Bern, Zurich, Soleure, Freyburg, Lucerne, Basle, and Schaffhausen, were of the aristocratic form, being administered by a great and little council, the composition and privileges of which varied in the different states. The five new cantons which were then organised by the French were likewise aristocratic, and governed by two councils. The general government of the country was administered by a diet, to which each canton sent a member, and which assembled annually at Freyburg and other principal towns in rotation. The president of the diet acted as the chief magistrate, and was styled *landamman* of Switzerland. The diet decided on war and peace, and concluded treaties of alliance and commerce; but, on these subjects, it was necessary that three-fourths of the cantons should concur. Considerable alterations have been made in this code since the French influence has been annihilated in Switzerland; and the different governments have been nearly restored to their former state.

REVENUE.] The revenue of Switzerland, before that country was oppressed and plundered by the French, was estimated at 1,050,000l. sterling, and it does not appear to be much higher at present. It is derived from the profits of the demesne land, a tenth of the produce of all

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the lands of the country, customs and duties on merchandise, the revenues arising from the sale of salt, and some occasional taxes. Beside this general revenue, a fund is raised by every corporation for the relief of the poor.

MILITARY FORCE.] The internal strength of the Swiss cantons, beside the militia, lately consisted of 13,400 men, raised according to the population and abilities of each. It was required, that every burgher, peasant, and subject, should 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 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 enlistment of volunteers, though only for allied states, or those with which they had entered into a previous agreement on that article. No subject, however, was to be forced into foreign service, or even to be enlisted without the concurrence of the magistracy.

RELIGION.] Though all the Swiss cantons form one political republic, they are not united in religion. The inhabitants of the cantons of Lucern, Uri, Schwetz, Unterwalden, Zug, Freyburg, and Soleure, are catholics; those of Bern, Zurich, Basle, and Schaffhausen, Calvinists; and those of Appenzel and Glarus, of both religions. With regard to the new cantons, we may observe, that the Leman or Pays-de-Vaud, and the Tessin, are catholics; while the Grisons, Argau, St. Gall, and Thurgau, are of both religions. The catholics are under the jurisdiction, in ecclesiastical matters, of the bishops of Basle, Lausanne, Sion, and Coire, and the abbots of St. Gall and Einsiedlen. The Valais, though formerly the scene of cruel persecution on account of its affection to protestantism, is catholic. The people of Neuchâtel are chiefly Calvinists; but all sects of religion are tolerated; and the new canton of Geneva is likewise a Calvinistic establishment. These differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which seem now to have subsided.

Ulric Zwingli, or Zuinglius, 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 Calvinistic. 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.] Schudi is mentioned by M. Simond as the earliest and best historian of Switzerland: he died in 1572. Calvin, whose name is so well known in all protestant countries, instituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are deemed wise and judicious by the learned natives. The ingenious and eloquent Rousseau, whose works have been 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 philoso-

pher. Gesner, the ingenious author of the celebrated romance of the Death of Abel, was also a native of Switzerland.

UNIVERSITIES AND SCHOOLS.] The university of Basle, founded in 1459, has a very curious botanic 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. The other universities, which indeed are commonly only styled colleges or academies, are those of Bern, Lausanne, Zurich, and Geneva.

Schools are numerous in Switzerland; they are of three descriptions, for reading and writing, for various languages, and for arithmetic and geometry. To those of the first class the people are not merely requested but obliged to send their children.

LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; 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 Cæsar's wall, which extended eighteen miles, from Mount Jura to the banks of lake Leman, 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 fine religious buildings, and numerous cabinets of valuable manuscripts, antiques, and curiosities of all kinds.

HISTORY.] The present Swiss and Grisons are the descendants of the ancient Helvetii, subdued by Julius Cæsar. Their mountainous uninhabited 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 rigor, that they ventured to remonstrate 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 on 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 should cleave an apple upon his son's head, at a certain distance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple, and, when Gresler desired him to explain the meaning of another arrow which he saw stuck in his belt, he bluntly answered, that it was intended for the governor's heart, if he had killed his son. Tell was immediately ordered to be imprisoned; but, making his escape, he watched his opportunity, shot the tyrant, and thus laid the foundation of 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 an union of several cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppression, sought first an alliance with Lucern, Uri, Schwitz, and Unterwalden, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent success of their arms against the troops of the duke of Austria, insensibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They first conquered Glarus and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their

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rights. Bern united itself in 1353; Freyburg and Soleuro in 1481; Basle 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, this confederacy was declared to be a free and independent state. The Grisons and other neighbouring communities afterwards entered into an alliance with the cantons, without being considered as component parts of the republic.

The Swiss continued to preserve their independence, and to enjoy freedom and comfort, while other parts of Europe were harassed by war, or subjected to an oppressive yoke. Disputes and commotions sometimes arose in the cantons: but they were quickly allayed and repressed. In the year 1715, the catholic states of the union allied themselves with France; and, after a long interval of tranquillity, a new confederacy was formed with the same kingdom, in 1777; in which the protestant cantons were no longer unwilling to join.

Near the close of the year 1797, Switzerland fell a prey to the rapacity and ambition of France. The emissaries and partisans of the domineering 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 states. That the aristocracies of Switzerland were not entirely blameless, either in their conduct toward their subjects or 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 exemplary moderation, and that the people were contented and happy. The real views of the French directors, in the attack upon Switzerland, however they might endeavour to color them, by pretending that they were invited by the people, and that their sole aim was to assert the cause of general liberty, were to give employment to, and procure pay and plunder for, their armies; and 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 seizure of the Helvetic part of the bishopric of Basle, of which they took possession under some frivolous pretext, in repugnance to an express treaty concluded with the Swiss in 1792. The Helvetic body, being 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 that interference which terminated in the subjection nearly of the whole of Switzerland to the French yoke, and almost the entire overthrow of its form of government. In December, the French directors demanded, from 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 Menard was ordered to march, with 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, issued a proclamation, desiring 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 the castle of Chignon. The government of Bern now had recourse to arms, and ordered colonel Weiss, with a considerable force, to disperse the insurgents. But the contest was soon decided by the French army, which advanced while the Swiss retreated, and took possession of the whole Pays.

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 was given to M. d'Erlach, formerly a field-marshal in the service of France. This force was joined by the quotas of other Swiss cantons, amounting to about 5,500 men. The directory now required that the ancient magistrates of Bern should be dismissed from their offices, and the constitution of the state be changed to one more consonant with democratic principles and the new system of liberty and equality. These conditions the government of Bern absolutely rejected, and sent orders to break off all negotiations. The rulers of France, alarmed at this appearance of firmness and resistance, and fearing they were not sufficiently prepared, sent general Brune, in 1798, 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 declared that he was ready to adjust all differences, and requested that commissioners might be sent to treat with him. These were accordingly sent, and a truce was concluded for eight days: but it had not expired, when the castle of Domach was attacked and taken by the French, and 13,000 men marched to Soleure, which capitulated to general Schauenbourg on the first requisition. Freyburg was immediately after reduced by Brune, and the Swiss troops were constrained to retreat.

The French now advanced toward Bern, where all was confusion, both in the city and in the army, the left division of which had mutinied, and put to death some of the 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 8,000 of the regular forces were stationed at Newenech, and 6,400 held the position of Frauenbrun, against which Schauenbourg advanced with 18,000 men. Both posts were now attacked by the French. The defenders of Newenech repelled the enemy; but those at the other post, 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, but were thence driven to the gates of Bern, where, after another severe battle, they were entirely defeated; and general Brune entered the city by capitulation. The other divisions of the Swiss army retreated; and the soldiers of one column, in a fit of rage and despair, murdered their officers, and, among others, their unfortunate general d'Erlach. The defeat of the Bernese produced the submission of several cantons; but the democratic republics still made a stand, defeated Schauenbourg, 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.

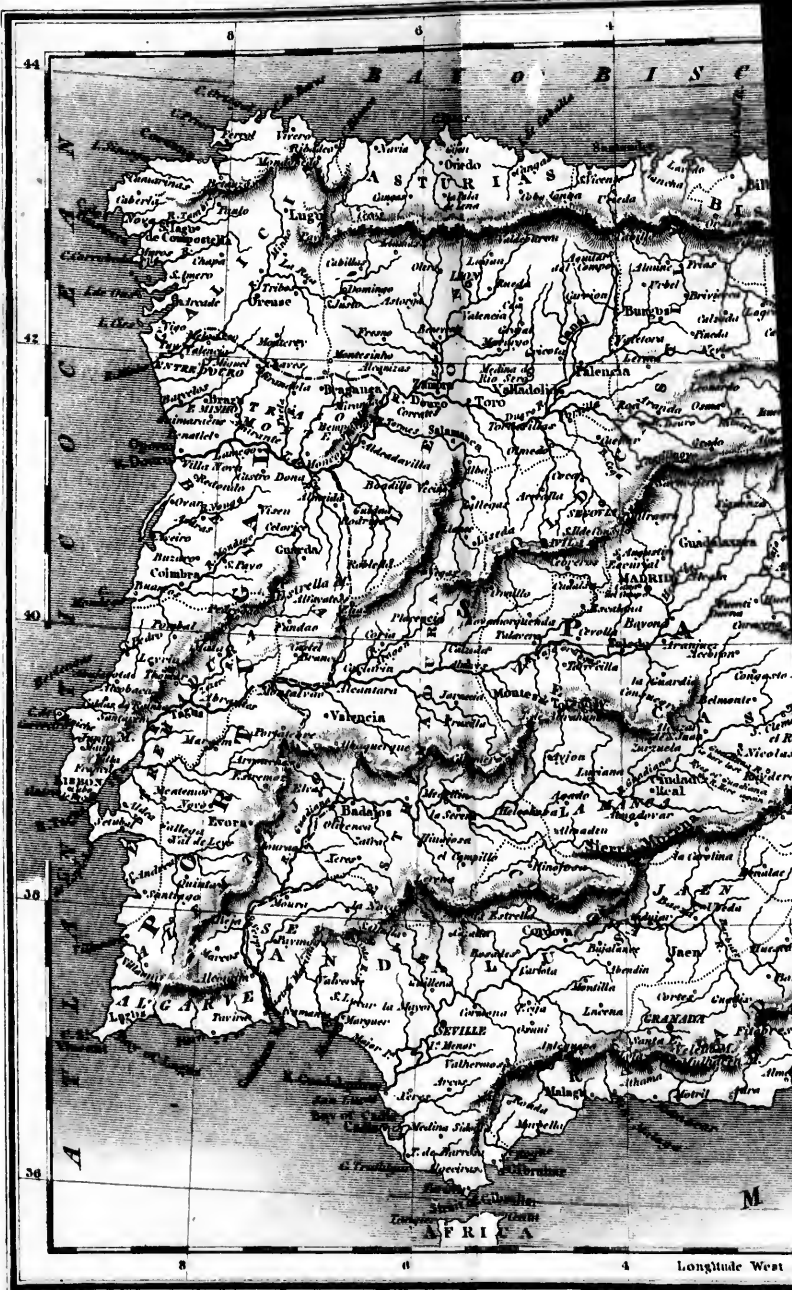
After this revolution the Swiss confederacy changed its constitution, and even its name. Provincial governments, under the direction of the French generals, were established in the different districts, and the whole assumed the name of the Helvetic Republic. Contributions and requisitions were levied, 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 Aus-

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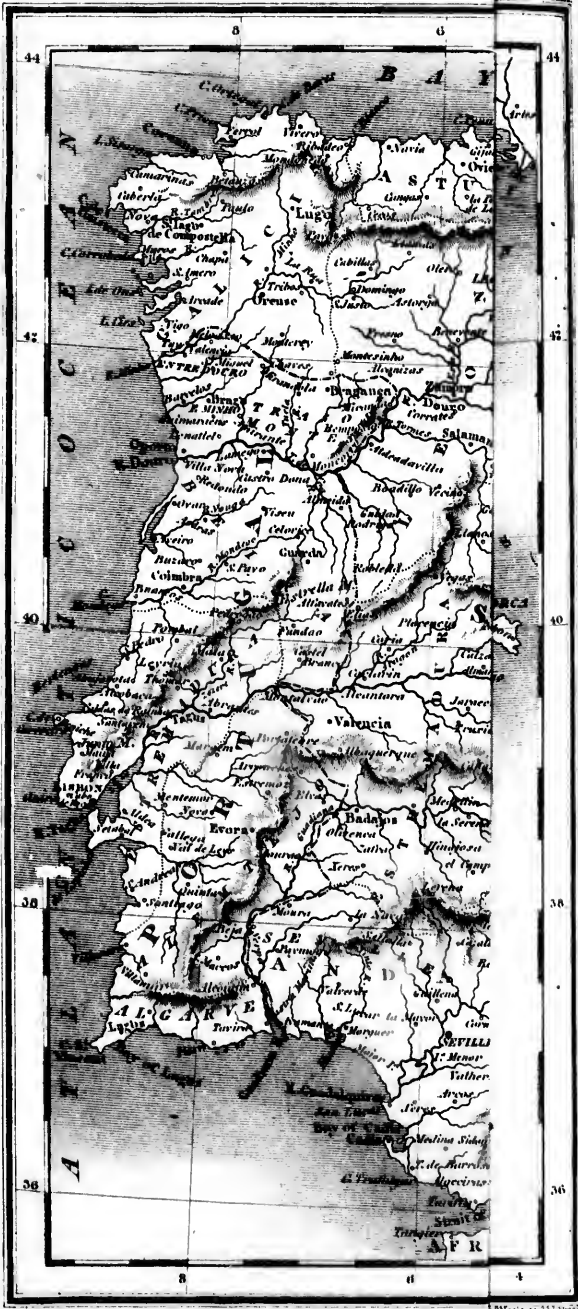


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trians and the French; and the cantons of Schaffhausen and Zurich, and especially the latter, suffered the severest distress from the ravages of the contending armies.

When the country, however, was no longer exposed to the horrors of war, and especially after the conclusion of the peace of Luneville, Switzerland became gradually more reconciled to its new form of government; but this form not perfectly according with the views of Bonaparté, when he had become 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 took the field, in 1802, under several leaders, particularly Aloys Reding, who had distinguished himself in defending his country against the first invasion of the French. They obtained some advantages over the French and their associates, and, after an obstinate conflict under the walls of Bern, obliged that city to capitulate, and forced the members of the new government 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 which might appear less objectionable to the people. The Swiss, fearing the consequences of farther resistance, reluctantly acquiesced in the proposal: the deputies met at Paris in 1802; the new constitution was framed and accepted; Reding was appointed landamman of Switzerland; and on these terms tranquillity was restored to the country.

In the subsequent wars between France and other powers, the cantons were not required to take an open part as principals: but Napoleon occasionally took the liberty of incorporating some Swiss regiments with his army, and employed them both in Spain and Russia, where they maintained the military reputation of their country. In the decline of his fortune, the republic co-operated with his adversaries, and received, from the congress of Vienna, some insignificant territorial accessions.

SPAIN.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.	
Length 600 }	between	{	9, 17 West, and 3, 10 East longitude.
Breadth 500 }			36 and 43, 40 North latitude.

Containing 147,335 square miles, with more than 77 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] 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 Hispalis, the modern Seville; but this conjecture is equally unsupported with that which derives the name of Britain from Brutus the Trojan.

BOUNDARIES.] Spain is bounded on the west by Portugal and the Atlantic ocean; by the Mediterranean on the east; by the Bay of Biscay, and the Pyrenean mountains, which separate it from France, on the north; and the strait of Gibraltar on the south.

DIVISIONS.] Spain is divided into fourteen provinces (which were formerly separate kingdoms), beside islands in the Mediterranean.

These provinces are, New and Old Castile, Galicia, the Asturias, Leon, Biscay, Navarre, Catalonia, Arragon, Valencia, Murcia, Granada, Andalusia, and Estremadura. Of these, Andalusia is the most populous, and Murcia and Navarre have the smallest number of inhabitants.

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 a considerable portion of the year.

MOUNTAINS.] Beside the Pyrenees, there are various chains of mountains in this country. The highest part of that remarkable boundary is Mont-Perdu, which rises to the height of 10,578 feet above the level of the sea. From the Pyrenees, a chain runs from east to west, nearly parallel with the northern coast, and terminates at the Gallician frontier. Another chain runs from north to south, beginning near the source of the Ebro, and crossing the country into the province of Murcia; but there are few of its peaks which soar to an elevation even of 3,800 feet. A higher range branches from the latter, near the centre of the kingdom, and proceeds to the Portuguese frontier. To the southward of this, a comparatively low chain also passes into Portugal. More southerly is the well-known Sierra Morena. The highest chain is that which separates Murcia and Granada from Andalusia; and the peaks of Mulhacen and Veleta, included in this range, exceed the height of Mont-Perdu. A hill remains to be mentioned, with which no Englishman ought to be unacquainted. We here allude to Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and in former times one of the Pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, is opposite to it in Africa. We ought to add, that many of the mountains are in a great measure composed of fine marble.

Among the mountains of Spain, Montserrat particularly deserves attention, being one of the most remarkable in the world, for situation, shape, and composition. It stands in a vast plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona. It is called *Monte Serrado*, or the saved mountain, and is so named from its extraordinary form; for it is broken and divided, and crowned with a great number of cones, or pine-heads, so that it has the appearance, when seen at a distance, of the work of man; but, upon a 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. On a nearer view, each cone appears of itself a mountain, and the whole com-

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poses an enormous mass, about 14 miles in circumference. The Spaniards, with their usual exaggeration, compute it to be two leagues in height; but it is not more than 3,300 feet above the level of the sea. As it is like no other mountain, so it stands 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 catholic pilgrims resort from various parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed *gratis* for three days, and all the sick received into the hospital. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels. The inhabitant of a particular hermitage, supposed to be more dignified than the rest, has the privilege of giving 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; but, at other times, they live in a very solitary manner, perform various penances, and adhere to rigid rules of abstinence. They never eat flesh; nor are they allowed to keep within their walls a dog, a cat, a bird, or any living thing, lest their attention should be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly affections. They have regular degrees of accommodation: the first place which a new hermit occupies, is the most remote from the monastery; and they descend as vacancies occur in the lower cells. The habitation of the first hermit is built upon various patches of level ground, on precipitous summits; and the second has his cell and its rude appendages on a rocky point, over a precipice that descends almost to the very bed of the Llobregat. On a rock which hangs over this cell was formerly a fort, the harbour of banditti, who frequently compelled the hermits to supply them with the necessaries of life, but who were at length dislodged by force.

Filabres is another remarkable detached mountain, distant 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. The mountainous districts of Catalonia are covered with the beech, the pine, the oak, and the cork-tree; and new plantations are thriving. Though the forests of Biscay have been thinned, extensive woods are still found in that province; and, in some parts of the Valencian territory, there are fine forests of palm-trees.

RIVERS, LAKES.] The principal rivers of Spain are the Douro, formerly Durius, which falls into the Atlantic, below Oporto in Portugal; the Tajo or Tagus, which enters the same ocean below Lisbon; the Guadiana, which joins the sea near Cape Finisterre, as does the Guadalquivir at St. Lucar; the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, which flows into the Mediterranean to the southward of Tortosa; and the Minho, which divides the northern division of Portugal from Galicia.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, rises in the 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 should 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, except goats, whose flesh nevertheless has an excellent flavor. These singular properties continue till other rivulets run into it and alter its nature.

Several lakes in Spain abound with fish, especially excellent trout; and the water of a lake near Antequera is made into salt by the heat of the sun.

The medicinal waters of Spain are little known: but many salutiferous springs are found in the provinces of Granada and Andalusia. Throughout Spain the waters are found to have such healing qualities, that they are excelled by those of no country in Europe.

CANALS.] The emperor Charles V. commenced the canal of Aragon; but the work was soon discontinued, and not resumed before the year 1770: it was then prosecuted with an appearance of spirit, and was found to be very beneficial. Other canals were lately in progress; but they are obstructed by indolence and the want of capital.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety, and of the same kinds, as in other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agates, loadstones, hyacinths, turquois-stones, copper, sulphur, alum, calamine, crystal, marble, 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. Near Cardona in Catalonia is a mountain of fossil salt, a league in circuit, nearly 500 feet high, and extending downward 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 great revenue to the crown; and Spanish gun-barrels, and the 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, when the Carthaginians took possession of Spain, their domestic and agricultural utensils were of that metal. Most of 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 more probable. Mines of lead and tin are found in various parts; and coal would appear in great abundance, if proper search should be made for it.

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 toward 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 the snowy mountains, that the utmost care is not sufficient to preserve the fruit, the grain, or the instruments of iron, from mould, rot, and rust. Both the acetous and the putrid fermentation here make a rapid progress. Beside the relaxing humidity of the climate, the ordinary food contributes much to the prevalence of most of the diseases which infect the principality of the Asturias. Yet, although subject to such a variety of endemic maladies, 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. In Galicia, the curate of San-Juan de Poyo, in 1724, administered the sacrament to thirteen persons, whose ages together made one thousand four hundred and ninety-nine, the youngest of

these being one seven; and in died in 1726,

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these being one hundred and ten, and the oldest one hundred and twenty-seven; and in Villa de Fofinanes, one Juan de Outeyro, a poor laborer, died in 1726, aged more than one hundred and forty-six years.

The soil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn; and, in many parts, that product is still abundant. Andalusia is the granary of Spain, and Leon and Old Castile are almost equally productive. Delicious fruits, particularly grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, almonds, figs, and mulberries, grow luxuriantly. The wines of Spain, especially sack and sherry, are in high request among foreigners. There are, in the district of Malaga, some thousands of wine-presses employed in making the rich wine which, if white, from the nature of the country, is called *Mountain*; if red, from the color, *vino tinto*, known in England by the name of *Tent*.

Spain indeed exhibits large tracts of unpromising, because uncultivated, ground; but no country perhaps maintains such a number of inhabitants who do so little work for their food; such are the generous qualities of the soil. Even sugar-canes thrive in Spain; and it yields honey, rice, tobacco, saffron, barilla, madder, flax, hemp, and silk. The sheep-walks afford the finest wool, and are a treasure in themselves. Some of the mountains are clothed with rich trees, fruit, and herbage to the tops; and a great variety of aromatic herbs are produced, which render the taste of the kids and sheep exquisitely delicious.

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 are remarkable for their ferocity. 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. The Spanish seas afford excellent fish of all kinds, particularly anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection. This country is much infested with locusts, which 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 has 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. Many persons are of opinion, that the peasants, 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 in which 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 at some lakes called the Eyes of the Guadiana.

In the royal cabinet of natural history at Madrid, many curiosities are contained. Every thing in this collection is ranged with neatness and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, beside being shown privately to strangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious stones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect; but the zoological collection at present is not large. 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 western 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, petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips from the roof, and forms an infinite number of stalactites, of a whitish hue, composed of several coats or crusts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increase in bulk. From the summit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be seen, but the bay, the strait, the towns of St. Roque and Algesiras, and the Alpuxara mountains, mount Abyla on the African shore, with its snowy top; the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and a great part of the Barbary coast.

POPULATION.] Spain, formerly the most populous kingdom in Europe, is now thinly inhabited. This diminution of number may partly be ascribed to the numerous emigrations to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who will not labor with sufficient diligence to raise food for their families. Another cause used to operate,—namely, the vast number of ecclesiastics of both sexes, who led a life of celibacy; but that cause is now dying away. 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 12 millions; and by others at 11; but the number probably amounts to 11,500,000.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, } The persons of the Spaniards are gen-
MANNERS, CUSTOMS. } rally tall, especially the Castilians; their hair and complexions are swarthy, but their countenances are very expressive. Charles III. endeavoured to clear their upper lips of whiskers, and to introduce among them the French dress, instead of their black clokes, short jerkins, flapped hats, and long Toledo swords. His zeal on this occasion provoked an insurrection in 1766; yet he renewed his prohibitory edict, and it was at length honored with observance.

The lofty dignity of the Spanish character is more particularly noticed in Castile. An old Castilian, who sees none above him, thinks himself the most important being in nature; and the same pride is usually communicated to his descendants. Ridiculous as this pride is, it is productive of the most exalted qualities. It inspires the nation with generous 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, we know of no instance of their venturing (as they might easily have done) to confiscate the British property in their galleons and plate-fleets, which was equally secure in time of war as in peace. This is the more surprising, as their kings have been often needy, and their counsellors or favorites not very studious of the preservation of good faith with Great-Britain. The chief ministers, indeed, have rarely been men of honor and integrity. The kings of Spain, of the house of Bourbon, seldom ventured to employ native Spaniards of great families as their ministers. These were generally Italians, who rose into power by the most infam-

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mous arts, and sometimes from abject stations. Hence the French kings of Spain, for more than a century, were indifferently served in the cabinet. Alberoni, though he had some talents and genius, embroiled his master with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and disgrace; and Grimaldi hazarded a rebellion in the capital by his oppressive and unpopular measure. Godoy, though not a foreigner, was a man of the lowest extraction, and equally ready to humor the court, or to insult and harass the nation.

The Spanish character is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne. "The Catalonians appear to be the most active stirring set of men, the best calculated for business, traveling, and manufactures. The Valencians are a more sullen sedate race, better adapted to the occupation 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 in 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 Catalonian, rather inclining to the former. The Biscaynans are acuto and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more resembling a colony of republicans than a province of an absolute monarchy; and the Gallicians are a plodding pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in search of a hardy-earned subsistence."

The beauty of the Spanish ladies reigns chiefly in their novels and romances; for, though it must be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, beauty is far from forming their general character. "Few (says Mr. Swinburne) are strikingly beautiful; but almost all have sparkling black eyes full of expression." 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 should hazard a conjecture, we might reasonably suppose that those artifices rather diminish than increase beauty, especially when they have reached the age of twenty-five years. The practice of painting the skin was one of those arts; but this is now upon the decline. The ladies are fond of society; and, though they are ill-educated and uninformed, they are not deficient in wit and vivacity.

Among the good qualities possessed by the Spaniards, their temperance in eating and drinking is remarkable. Their breakfast is usually chocolate, tea being seldom taken. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together; but the poor, for want of meat, are frequently obliged to content themselves with bread and vegetables, boiled with oil and vinegar. They live much upon garlic, chives, salad, and radishes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink little wine, and the women scarcely any. Old and young men, and even many of the females, are fond of smoking tobacco, in the form of a *cigar*,—a thin roll of the leaves of the plant. 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, in general, 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 is soon finished in those countries; and this time of repose is called the *Siesta*. Dancing is such a favorite entertainment, that you may see a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the same country-dance. The dances of the Spaniards are lively; but the *fundango* is something more; for it is loose and wanton. Gaming is also a frequent amusement of both sexes. 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; but they are not so frequent as they formerly were. The married women continue to have their *cortejos* or gallants, from whom they expect the most polite and ceremonious attention, and who are viewed by the husband with eyes of indifference, rather than with sensations of jealousy or disgust. It is worthy of remark, that not a few of these amorous attendants are priests; and, even if we had a higher opinion than that which is generally entertained of the morals of the Spanish clergy, we should not suppose that all the ecclesiastical companions of the ladies are innocent and virtuous. Many of these connexions are doubtless sufficiently pure and Platonic; but the practice evidently puts the firmness of virtue to a hazardous test.

The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-feasts, formerly made a striking trait in the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On these occasions, young gentlemen had opportunities of showing their courage and activity before their mistresses; and the valor of the cavalier was proclaimed, honored, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceness of the bulls he had killed in these encounters. Great pains were used in settling the form and weapons of the combat, so as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. This diversion is undoubtedly of Moorish original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaisance, and partly through rivalry. It was prohibited by Charles IV.; but it is not yet totally disused.

The Gitanos, or the Gypsies of Spain, form a remarkable race, so far differing from the rest of the nation as to require distinct and particular notice. They are found in every province of the realm; but they abound most in the southern and south-eastern parts, which they prefer on account of the superior natural advantages of those provinces. Being disinclined to agricultural pursuits, they are rarely found in villages; but they abound in the worst quarters of large and populous towns. Their chief sedentary occupation is the manufacture of iron utensils, by which some of them acquire comparative opulence. Some wander through the streets, selling trifling metallic articles, and also act as tinkers. When bull-fights were a common amusement, the *matador*, or he who killed the animal after the cavaliers had teased and wounded him, was usually a Gypsy. Many persons of this denomination are also theatrical performers; and some of these are private teachers of the *fundango*. Others are dealers in horses, asses, and mules; and it may easily be supposed that they practise various tricks and deceptions in this branch of trade. Many, particularly at Cadiz, thrive in the capacity of butchers; and some act as publicans. Among the women, dancing, vocal and instrumental music, and fortune-tell-

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ing, are the prevailing pursuits. Beside these, who are in a great measure settled, some tribes lead erratic lives among the woods and mountains, pilfering or begging. They are hated or despised by the people; even the lowest of the rabble consider them as unworthy of the honor of association. Either in consequence of this supercilious treatment, or from native baseness, they are in general deficient in courage. Their cowardice is accompanied with a vindictive spirit, which they sometimes exercise in the most cruel manner, when they think they can escape detection. In their demeanor to persons whom they consider as their superiors, they are abject and servile, and prodigal of fulsome compliments; but, among themselves, they are savage in their behaviour. Their color is a shade darker than that of the swarthy Andalusian: their eyes and hair are black, and their noses are slightly hooked: and, as in other countries, they have a marked peculiarity of aspect. The men affect gay apparel, and the women are fond of artificial flowers, tinsel, and embroidery. Their marriages are attended with indecent ceremonies, and enlivened by the sounds of the guitar. When a death happens, the relatives and friends seat themselves round the body, weep, and recount the adventures of the deceased; and the females cling to the corpse, until it is carried off. Widows are not allowed to marry again. With regard to religion, it is necessary that the Gypsies should profess their adherence to catholicism, as they would not otherwise be entitled to the privileges of Spaniards, to which they were admitted by an edict of Charles III., who allowed them to bear the honorable appellation of New-Castilians.

CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Madrid, though unfortified, it being only surrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about 160,000 inhabitants. It stands on several low hills, in the midst of an extensive plain, bounded, on the side of Old-Castile, by the mountains of Guadarama, whose summits are frequently covered with snow. It is well paved and lighted, and some of the streets are spacious and handsome; but many are narrow and crooked, like those in the old city of Paris. The principal houses 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 are lofty, but look more like prisons than the habitations of people at their liberty; the windows (beside having a balcony) being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and sometimes all the rest. Separate families generally inhabit the same house, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much distressed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not very willing to take strangers into their houses, especially if they are not catholics.

A curious account is given by Fischer of the passing scenes at Madrid. "Women in black, and veiled; men in long clokes, water-carriers, fruit-sellers, magnificent equipages, dusty diligences, light *calezas*, waggons drawn by mules, a multitude of asses with their pack-saddles and bells, and herds of goats, with peasants going from door to door to milk them; farther on, blind musicians singing their *tornadillas* or popular songs, alguazils crying the orders of police, and a crowd of Gallegos or porters; processions of chaplets, guards following the drum, confraternities escorting a funeral and singing psalms, the tinkling of bells at the churches; and, lastly, the solemn procession of the *venérable* or host, when, the bells of the choral children being heard, every one kneels down, all tongues are silent, and all hats off, all the

carriages stop, and the tumultuous mass seems instantaneously petrified; but two minutes have scarcely elapsed, before the accustomed clangor is renewed."

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 front is 470 feet in length, and 100 high; and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence: the great audience-chamber is 120 feet long, hung with crimson velvet richly embroidered with gold, and ornamented with 12 looking-glasses made at St. Ildefonso, each ten feet high, and with 12 tables of the finest Spanish marble. The palaces round it are designed for hunting-seat . . . houses of retirement for the king. Some of them contain fine paintings and good statues. The chief of these palaces are the Buen Retiro. (now stripped of all its best pictures and furniture), Casa del Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonso.

At Aranjuez is a park many leagues round, intersected, in different parts, by alleys of two or three miles in extent, each being formed by double rows of elm-trees. The alleys are wide enough to admit four coaches abreast; and betwixt the rows there is a narrow channel through which runs a stream. Here are also thick groves of smaller trees of various kinds; and deer and wild boars wander at large, beside hares, rabbits, pheasants, and partridges. The 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 suite. The gardens are on a slope, on the top of which is a great reservoir, which supplies the fountains: this 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 similar to that of Versailles. 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 are 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 very valuable paintings, and the lower part displays 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 considerable volume; and it is said that Philip II., who was its founder, expended upon it six millions of ducats. It is situated about twenty miles from Madrid, in a deep recess at the foot of the Guadarama mountains. It contains an extraordinary number of windows, 200 in the west front, and in the east 366; and the apartments are decorated with an astonishing variety of paintings, sculpture, tapestry, ornaments of gold and silver, marble, jasper, gems, and other curious stones. This building, beside its palace, contains a church, large and richly ornamented; a mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, and a college. It has also a library, in which are about 30,000 volumes: but this is more

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particularly valuable for the Arabic and Greek manuscripts with which it is enriched. Above the shelves are paintings in fresco, by Carducho, the subjects of which are taken from sacred and profane history, or refer 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 favor of Rabirius, the works relative to eloquence and the bar. A singular circumstance in this library is, that, on viewing the books, they are found to be placed the contrary way, so that the edges of the leaves are outward, and contain their titles written on them. The reason for this custom is, that Arias 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 without 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 which have been 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 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 incrustured with fine marbles.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full estimate of the enormous sums bestowed on this palace, and on its furniture, statues, paintings, columns, vases, and the like decorations, which are 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 of 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 had obtained over the French (but by the assistance of the English forces) at St. Quintin, on St. Laurence's day, in 1557. The part which is peculiarly assigned to the king 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 was enriched and adorned by some of 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, forming, however, a disagreeable whole. We may add that many of the pictures and statues which have found admission here are excellent, and some of them are not to be equaled even in Italy itself.

Cadiz stands on an island separated from the continent of Andalusia, without the Strait of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the sea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, joining it to the main land. The bay is two-fold, one branch extending from the city to the village of St. Mary and the salt-works, the other commencing at the forts Matagorda and Puntal, and forming a secure harbour for the whole royal navy. The town is walled, and has bastions on the land-side. Most of the streets are narrow, and, in consequence of the height of the houses and the smallness of the windows, have a gloomy appearance. The square of St. Antony is considered as an ornament to the town, as are also the custom-

house and the great hospital, and some of the churches; but Cadiz cannot justly be called a handsome city; and, among other inconveniences which attend it as a place of residence, the streets, in the night, are not only infested with dogs, but with rats. Since the separation of the American colonies from the mother-country, the trade by which this city was long enriched, has declined into insignificance. In 1804, the population amounted to 70,000; but the present number, we have reason to believe, is much less.

Cordova, formerly a Roman town, and subsequently a Moorish capital, exhibits considerable remains of the walls erected by its early possessors, and a splendid edifice built for a mosque by Abdalrahman I., now used as an episcopal church. This structure is so fantastic and irregular, that it is difficult to describe it. On the eastern side, the whole length is divided by buttresses into thirteen parts; and seventeen gates lead into the cloister and the church. The former has, on three sides, a portico of sixty-two pillars; and in the middle are fountains and shady groves. The church consists of seventeen ailes, separated from each other by rows of marble columns of different hues and veins, the capitals of which are, in general, inelegant imitations of those of the Corinthian order. In the south-east angle is an ornamented building, which the Moors regarded as particularly sacred. It has a screen in the front, supported by two ranges of low columns of colored marble, with capitals most minutely carved and gilt. In the centre appears a modern choir, which in another situation would be greatly admired, but which impairs the general effect of the ancient mosque; and many chapels constructed among the pillars also interrupt the enfilade, and spoil the view.—The town is large; but the houses in various parts are in a state of dilapidation; and it does not appear that the population exceeds 30,000. Many of the inhabitants manufacture silken and woollen stuffs, and prepare, with habitual skill, the skins of goats and of kids, or *cordovans* and *maroquins*, for the use of shoe-makers, to whose chartered company in London the appellation of *Cordwainer* was given in reference to this branch of trade.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is, next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population, though it still contains 90,000 inhabitants. Its shape is circular, and the walls seem of Moorish construction; but they are of little use in the present state of the art of war, and the new *fas-cine* batteries are scarcely more serviceable. Some of the gates are magnificent, particularly that of Triana, which leads to the bridge of boats over the Guadalquivir. The suburb which begins at this gate is as large as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic castle, where, in 1481, the inquisition was first established in Spain. The cathedral is a fine Gothic building, with a curious steeple or tower, having a brazen figure of Faith at the top, called *La Giralda*, which, though it weighs two tons and a half, turns with the slightest breeze. 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 church in 1400. There are two buildings at Seville which have the appearance of palaces, rather than of ordinary structures, and yet are appropriated to vulgar purposes. One is the royal snuff-manufactory, erected by Ferdinand VI.; the other is the Lonja, built in the reign of Philip II. for the use of the merchants. The college which the Jesuits formerly possessed is also an elegant edifice. This city,

in the seventeenth century, had an academy for that purpose, and some of the finest churches and monuments formerly very exported; and the latter are preferred in the land.

Barcelona is a city which some trace that a whole quarter composed the bottom mole is a masterpiece, parently strong, but sustained in 1714. In the old but, in the new day, the fronts of many. The cathedral is a handsome chapel. St. Mary of the sea, taste. Among the and the exchange supply the king's troops, and the attention to trade more intelligent. They have academy history, and the suburb called

Valencia is a city, some handsome, dirty, and ill-furnished, are about 75,000 manufactures; many parts of Spain.

Carthage is a remarkable building, figure of a helmet, the town, well persons occupy town of the province has a stately cathedral, inhabitants are manners.

Granada is a city, inhabitants, and flax. The Alcazar as any in Spain, cathedral is magnificent, tended to the Alcazar. The famed Alcazar.

Malaga has a city, and lucrative, 55,000 persons.

in the seventeenth century, acquired celebrity as a school of painting: an academy for that art was founded under the auspices of Murillo, and some of the finest pieces of that admired artist are exhibited in the churches and conventual chapels. Of the trade of Seville, which was formerly very extensive, there are small remains: yet oil and fruit are exported; and the silken articles manufactured by the inhabitants are preferred in North-America to those which are fabricated in England.

Barcelona is a large circular city, built round the old Roman town, of which some traces are yet visible. The sea has so far retired from it, that a whole quarter of the city stands upon the sands which formerly composed the bottom of the harbour. The port is handsome, and the mole is a masterpiece of solidity and convenience. The citadel is apparently strong, but would not now withstand so long a siege as the town sustained in 1714, when the inhabitants had revolted from the government. In the old part of the town, the streets are narrow and crooked; but, in the new division, some broad and fine streets are observable. On the fronts of many of the houses there are tolerable paintings in fresco. The cathedral is a majestic edifice, and under its sanctuary is a very handsome chapel. The most elegant church in the whole city is that of St. Mary of the Sea, though the ornaments of the high altar are in a bad taste. Among the other public buildings, the hotel of the royal audience, and the exchange, are the most striking. The artisans of this town supply the kingdom with most of the clothing and arms for the troops, and the other manufactures are numerous and considerable. An attention to trade has not narrowed the ideas of the people, who are more intelligent and less unpolished than those of other parts of Spain. They have academies for jurisprudence, medicine, natural philosophy, history, and the fine arts. The whole population of the city, and of the suburb called Barcelonetta, may be computed at 120,000.

Valencia is a large city, with lofty walls. It possesses a fine cathedral, some handsome palaces, and a noble exchange; but the houses are ill-built, dirty, and ill-furnished, and many are in a ruinous state. The inhabitants are about 75,000 in number, and are, in general, well employed in various manufactures; yet mendicity, which the count O'Reilly banished from many parts of Spain, exists here in a striking degree.

Carthagenia 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, well defended toward the sea, but not by land. About 30,000 persons occupy this city, which serves as a port for Murcia, the chief town of the province. The latter is situated in a very fertile vale, and has a stately cathedral, with a handsome bridge over the Segura: its inhabitants are notorious for indolence, ignorance, bigotry, and insoial manners.

Granada is a declining city: yet it has, at present, above 60,000 inhabitants, and a considerable trade in silk, wine, oil, fruit, hemp, and flax. The Alameda, along the banks of the Xenil, is as pleasant a walk as any in Spain; but the town is by no means handsome. The cathedral is magnificent without elegance; and the same remark may be extended to the building which is appropriated to the court of chancery. The famed Alhambra will be described among the antiquities.

Malaga has a small but commodious harbour; and its trade is brisk and lucrative in wine, fruit, and other products. The city is occupied by 55,000 persons; and some accounts considerably increase that number.

It is surrounded by a double wall, strengthened by stately towers. The old houses, like those of Seville, are built in the Moorish style, about the four sides of a court, in the midst of which many have refreshing fountains. The streets are narrow, and the churches are in a manner lost among the houses: but the Alameda, or public walk, has magnificent appendages and great attractions. The cathedral is a fine structure: its style is a mixture of the Roman and Gothic modes of building. The interior is finished with exquisite taste; it is an oblong spheroid, with a row of Corinthian pillars, around which is the nave: these pillars support a lofty roof of well-turned arches. The high altar and the pulpit are of beautiful flesh-colored marble, and the choir is so elegant, and so finely ornamented, that it is called by Palomino (the biographer of Spanish artists) the eighth wonder of the world.

Bilbao, on the Ybaizabal, is the chief town of Biscay. It contains about nine hundred houses, with a large square by the water-side, well shaded with pleasant walks. The houses are substantial and lofty, the streets well-paved, and the town is enlivened by commerce.

Salamanca is of a circular form, built on three small sand-stone hills and two valleys, in a nook formed by the river Tormes, over which is a stately bridge of twenty-five arches,—twelve of Roman construction, the rest modern. The finest part of this city is the great square, built in modern times. The houses are of three stories, 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 bas-relief. The cathedral is admired: but it does not exhibit the best style of Gothic architecture. The university is declining; the town has a dull and gloomy aspect, and the effects of the siege in 1812, when even its monasteries were fortified by the French against the English, are still visible.

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 who are left, and assists, in some degree, those small manufactures of sword-blades and silk stuffs which are established in this city. The situation is romantic, resembling that of Durham; but the town is ill-built, poor, and mean.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the Castilian kingdom. 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 at the east end is an octagonal building, like the chapter-house at York. The city in general is ill-built: but it has one handsome square, a fine palace, and some beautiful churches and chapels.

Badajoz claims our notice, as a place of great antiquity, and of modern fame. It is the capital of Estremadura, and the see of a bishop. It is not large, populous, or commercial; but it is considered as the key of Spain on the Portuguese frontier, and its strength was evinced in the war which commenced in 1808.

Compostella, the capital of Galicia, deserves notice for its ormer rather than its present fame. Pilgrims used to flock to this town from all parts of Spain, and from other countries, to visit the shrine of St. James, whose remains (the people say) were deposited in the cathedral, and the

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multiplied offerings were exceedingly valuable; but this superstitious folly has declined in modern times. The city has some stately public edifices; but it is not in general well-built, nor does it flourish in point of population, as it has not, we believe, more than 14,000 inhabitants.— In the same province is Ferrol, a place which, having a large and excellent harbour, rose, after the year 1752, from the obscurity of a fishing hamlet to the dignity of a considerable town, and is now the chief naval station in Spain.

Gibraltar, in Andalusia, has been a dependency of Great-Britain ever since the year 1704, when it was taken by the adventurous courage of a party of sailors. Repeated attempts have since been made to re-take it, but without success. It is a commodious port, and formed naturally for commanding the passage of the Strait, 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 length of the strait is about 33 miles, and the breadth 14. The fortified rock is regarded as one of the keys of Spain, and is always furnished with a garrison well provided for its defence. Its harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. The place is accessible on the land-side only by a narrow passage between the rock and the sea; but that is walled and strengthened both by art and nature, and so enclosed by high steep hills, as to render access exceedingly difficult. It has two gates on that side, and as many toward the sea. The town is situated behind the principal bastions, and rises in tiers of mean houses a considerable way up the declivity. About 12,000 persons, of whom 1600 are Jews, compose the population. As the soil produces scarcely any thing, all their provisions are brought to them either from England, or from 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 the town into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magistrates.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] When gold and silver were profusely drawn from the colonial possessions of Spain, those metals were chiefly consigned to the merchants of other nations, in return for a variety of manufactured goods and other commodities. Seville was the principal seat of this commerce for two centuries; but, in 1720, it was transferred to Cadiz, which, even after other ports had been opened, enjoyed the greatest part of the trade of Spain. New manufactures were gradually introduced by the natives, and their exports were so far varied, as to render the balance of trade less unfavorable to them.

At St. Ildefonso the glass manufacture is carried on with a degree of excellence even superior to that which is displayed in England. The largest mirrors are made in a brass frame, 162 inches long, 93 wide, and six deep, weighing near nine tons. Here is also a manufactory of linen; but it is not in a flourishing state.

In the city of Valencia, a few years ago, five thousand looms, and three hundred stocking-frames, gave employment to more than 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. The woollen branch is also cultivated in this city with success. At Alcora, in the same neighbourhood, a manufacture of porcelain has been introduced, and the artisans have acquired reputation for their painted tiles. At Valencia, the best apartments are floored with these, which are re-

markable for neatness and coolness, and are stronger and more beautiful than those of Holland.

At Carthagena they make great quantities of the *esparto* ropes and cables, some of them spun like hemp, and others plaited. Both operations are performed with surprising rapidity. These cables are excellent, because they float on the surface of the water, and are therefore not liable to be cut by the rocks on a foul coast. The *esparto* makes good mats for houses, and it is also 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, Bourgoing 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 used 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 of the cordage, and keeping it a long time piled up. In this state the tar ferments, and heats the hemp, and the cordage is extremely apt to break even after being very little used.

The Spaniards formerly obtained their hemp from the north; but now the provinces of Granada, Arragon, and Navarre, furnish them with the greatest part of the hemp they use. 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 *harilla*, a species of pot-ash. It is used for making sope, 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 that produces it is about sixty leagues in length, and eight in breadth, on the borders of the Mediterranean.

Spain is one of the richest countries in Europe in saltpetre; and the manufacture is curious. "I observed (says Mr. Townsend) a large enclosure, with a number of mounts, 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. In the preceding summer these heaps had been washed; and, being thus exposed, they would yield the same quantity of salt again, and, as far as appears, the produce would never fail; but, after having been washed, no saltpetre can be obtained without a subsequent exposure. Some of this earth they can lixiviate once in 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 the eye when they may wash it to advantage, and by the taste if it has yielded a lixivium of a proper strength; from which, by evaporating the water in boiling, they obtain the saltpetre."

The other manufactures of Spain are chiefly those of wool, copper, and

hard-ware; but that skill which their jealousy yet, by their the finer sorts graze during autumn, for they remain to furnish wool it has been exported; and its imports a British manu

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hard-ware; but the people do not work up the first of these articles with that skill which is displayed by the English. It might be supposed that their jealousy would prohibit the exportation of so useful a commodity: yet, by their kindness or negligence, other nations are benefited. Even the finer sorts of wool are most frequently exported. Those sheep which graze during the summer on the mountains of Leon, and are driven in the autumn, for the advantage of a warmer climate, into Estremadura, where they remain till April, when they are taken into Castile to be shorn, furnish wool which is not only soft and fine, but strong, particularly after it has been washed at Segovia. From Bilbao this article is chiefly exported; and the other exports from that town are iron and nuts, while its imports are dried fish, fish-oil, hemp, flax, colonial produce, and British manufactured goods.

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 shameful misgovernment, as a proper degree of attention is not paid to the interest 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 member of the royal family whom he may prefer. It is at least certain, that the house of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain by virtue of the last will of Charles II.

Each of the Spanish kingdoms, or principalities, had formerly its cortes or national council, which shared the chief authority with the sovereign; but these assemblies gradually gave way to the encroachments of despotism, and were exploded or disused as superfluous encumbrances. Even in Arragon, the justiciary of which realm claimed and asserted, in the name of the people, the right of dethronement, the power of Charles of Austria and his successors subverted all remains of privilege: yet, in Biscay, they suffered the people to enjoy a remnant of freedom under the authority of the provincial states. During the late usurpation of the Spanish throne by Joseph Bonaparté, the cortes met, and acted in many instances with spirit and propriety; but the want of general support compelled the assembly to acquiesce in the revival of royal tyranny.

The chief business of the privy council, which is composed of a number of noblemen or grandees, nominated by the king, is to prepare matters, and to digest papers for the cabinet, which consists of the secretary of state, and three or four great officers, named by the king, who have the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cognisance only of military affairs. That of Castile is the highest law tribunal of the kingdom. The several courts of the royal audiences are those of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragossa, Valencia, and Barcelona. These judge primarily in all causes within fifteen miles of their respective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior jurisdictions. Beside these there are many subordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of the administration.

The foreign possessions of the crown of Spain are now limited to the towns of Ceuta and Oran on the coast of Barbary,—the Canaries, a group of islands to the westward of Africa,—the Philippines, the Ladrões, and other clusters of islands in the Indian ocean.

REVENUE, ARMY, AND NAVY.] In the present debility of Spain, and amidst the dilapidation of its resources under a government which unites imbecility with tyranny, little can be said of the national finances,

except that they are in a state of the greatest disorder. Schemes of relief have been proposed, but not adopted; and the wisdom of the cabinet appears to be unequal to the exigency. Before the year 1808, the royal income, arising from Spain alone, was computed at six millions sterling; and it was supposed that the whole revenue of the Spanish dominions nominally amounted to fourteen millions; but this sum was exposed to great defalcations before the rest reached the treasury. At present, the revenue is very inconsiderable, and the army and navy are in a very ineffective state.

ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS.] Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms, all of which, with several others, were, by name, stated in the royal titles, so that they amounted in all to thirty. This absurd custom is still occasionally continued; but the king is now generally contented with the title of His Catholic Majesty. The sovereigns of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a sword, without being crowned. Their signature is, I THE KING. The king's eldest son is called Prince of Asturias, and his younger children are, by way of distinction, called *infants* or *infantas*.

The arms of Spain exhibit a shield, divided into four quarters, containing a castle with three towers for Castile, three lions for Leon, and three lilies in reference to the descent of the present family from the French royal line.

The general name for those Spanish nobles and gentlemen who are unmixed with the Moorish blood, is *Hidalgo*. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, and inferior titles. Such as are created *grandees* may stand covered before the king, and are treated with princely distinctions. A *grandee* cannot be apprehended without a royal order; and cardinals, archbishops, ambassadors, and some other dignified persons, both in church and state, have the privilege, as well as the *grandees*, to appear covered before the king.

The order of *St. James of Compostella* is the richest in Spain. It was divided into two branches, each under a 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*, instituted in 1158 by Sancho king of Castile, after that fortress had been taken from the Moors. The number, influence, and possessions, of the knights of this fraternity, became 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 that of St. Julian, or of the Pear-tree; but, after Alcantara was taken from the Moors, and made the chief residence of the knights, they derived their designation from that town, and laid aside the old device. The order of the *Lady of Mercy* is said to have been instituted by James I., king of Arragon, about the year 1228, 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 the increasing influence of the fair sex procured its extension to females. The knights of Montesa arose at Valencia, near 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 thence derived its name, and St. George was selected for their patron. In 1771, Charles III. instituted an order to which he gave his own name, in commemora-

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tion of the birth of a grandson. The badge is a star of eight points, enameled white, and edged with gold : in the centre of the cross is the image of the Virgin. The motto is, *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 infamous court of inquisition, which was erected for the support of the prevailing faith, is indeed no longer allowed to exercise its murderous rigors ; but the prelates retain the power of proceeding against heretics. Superstition is still the order of the day, and mingles itself with all the transactions of life ; and the temporary check which it received from the leaders of the late cortes did not prevent the complete revival of its influence on the return of Ferdinand VII. from captivity. As the monastic establishment is connected with this corrupt state of religion, it is so far encouraged by that prince, that he has restored many of the convents which were suppressed by Joseph Bonaparté, the usurper of the throne.

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 Castile, and has a princely income ; but the Spanish court has many ways of lessening the revenues of the church, as by pensions, donations to hospitals, and premiums to the societies of agriculture. This archbishopric pays annually 15,000 ducats to the monks of the Escorial, beside other pensions ; and it is asserted that there is not a bishopric in Spain free from burthens or deductions of that kind ; and the second-rate benefices are in the same predicament. Out of the rich canonries and prebends, are taken the pensions of the last order of knights.

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 is greatly indebted to Isidore, bishop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Such, however, 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 honor to his own memory. He is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous satirists.

The *Visions of Quevedo*, and some other of his satirical pieces, having been translated into the English language, have rendered that author well known in this country. He was one of the best writers of the seventeenth century, excelling equally in verse and in prose. Beside his merit as a poet, he was well versed in the Oriental languages, and possessed great erudition. 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 Lope de Vega, who was contemporary with our Shakspeare. He possessed an imagination astonishingly fertile, and wrote with great facility ; but in his dra-

matic 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, beside 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 writers, particularly De Solis, displayed great abilities in history, by investigating the antiquities of America, and writing the history of its conquest. Mariana, the Jesuit, was also an able historian. Among the writers who appeared in Spain in modern times, father Feyjoo was one of the most distinguished. His performances evince talent and acuteness, extensive reading, and uncommon liberality of sentiment, especially when his situation and country are considered. Don Francisco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia, the count de Campomanes (the political economist), Ustari., and Munoz the historian, may also be mentioned with praise among the Spanish *literati*. Spain has likewise produced many travelers and voyagers to both the Indies, whose writings are equally amusing and instructive. Of the modern Spanish poets, Yriarte, Melandez, and Ariaza, seem to be the most admired; and extemporaneous versifiers, not however equal to the Italian *improvisatori*, frequently offer themselves to public notice.

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. Palomino, in an elaborate treatise on the art of painting, 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. Among 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 AND SCHOOLS.] In Spain are reckoned 24 universities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded in the year 1200 by Alfonso, king of Leon. Among the other universities are those of Seville, Granada, Compostella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcalá, Saragossa, Oviedo, and Cervera. They neither flourish in the number of students, nor in the ability and learning of professors.

It is not generally known, that great attention has been paid by the Spanish government to the elementary education or primary instruction of the people. On the dissolution of the order of Jesuits, the court appropriated a part of the funds of that society to the establishment of parochial schools; and many have been formed in late years, on the plan of Dr. Bell or of Mr. Lancaster.

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.

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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 tuo es el reyno, y la potencia, y la gloria, per los siglos. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.] These are chiefly Roman and Moorish. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, supposed to have been erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley, and is supported by a double row of 159 arches. It is beautiful in its design, and in an admirable state of preservation. 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 thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportional 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 lofty 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 honor 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 Morvedro (the ancient Saguntum) are some Roman remains—as the ruins of the theatre, an exact semicircle about 82 yards in diameter; some of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9,000 persons might attend the exhibitions without inconvenience.

The Moorish antiquities are rich and magnificent. The fortified palace of Alhambra was built in 1280, by the second Moorish king of Granada; and, in 1492, in the reign of the eighteenth king, it was taken by the Spaniards. It is situated 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 old walls, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in 1537, 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 Moorish palace has no external beauty: it is a mass of houses and towers, walled round, and built of stones of different dimensions. The walls are entirely destitute of ornament, and are daubed over with stucco by a very coarse hand: but, within (says Mr. Swinburne), "it is indisputably the most curious place that exists in Spain, perhaps in Europe. Nothing to be met with any where else can convey an idea of this edifice, except you take it from the decorations of an opera, or the tales of the Genii." The first court has a fountain in the middle, and a peristyle paved with marble, the arches

bearing upon very slight pillars, in proportions and style differing from all the regular orders of architecture. The walls are encrusted with fret-work in stucco, which is regularly repeated at certain distances; and, in every division, are Arabic sentences, some of a religious import, others in praise of the founder. The ceiling is gilt or painted; and time has not impaired the brilliancy of the colors. Mosaic work appears on the lower part of each wall, disposed in festoons and fantastic knots. The next court takes its name from twelve figures of lions, which support a marble basin: it is encompassed with a fine colonnade; two porticoes project into the court at the two extremities, the ceilings of which are very neatly finished: the capitals of the columns are curiously wrought, but have not that uniformity which modern taste would require. A circular hall, not far from this court, is greatly admired for its form, the elegance of its cupola, and the exquisite manner in which the stucco is designed, painted, and finished. Opposite to this hall is the entrance into the tower of the two sisters, so named from two beautiful slabs of extraordinary dimensions, which form part of the floor. From the queen's dressing-room, which is a small square apartment, finely decorated, in the middle of an open gallery, a long passage leads to the hall of ambassadors, which Mr. Jacob thus describes: "It is a square of forty feet, eighty feet in height, with nine windows, opening upon balconies, from which the views of the country are extremely fine. The Arabic inscriptions are worked in porcelain, with exquisite skill, so as to unite with the stucco ornaments, which every where abound. The ceiling is very beautifully inlaid with wood of various colors, and is adorned with a number of gold and silver ornaments, in the forms of circles, crowns, and stars." The king's bed-chamber has two alcoves, in which the beds were placed, upon a raised pavement of blue and white tiles; and it was kept cool in the summer by a fountain. Behind the alcoves are the royal baths, which are lighted from the roof, and beautifully finished.

HISTORY.] Spain, in all probability, was first peopled by the Celts from Gaul; and it afterward received successive bodies of adventurers from Africa. The Phœnicians also sent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. On the rise of Rome and Carthage, the possession of this country became an object of contention between those powerful republics; but at length the arms of the Romans prevailed, and Spain remained in their possession until the decline of that empire. The Suevi, Vandals, and Alans, divided this kingdom among them: but, in 585, the Visi-Goths became the masters nearly of the whole peninsula, after having, for above a century and a half, ruled over a considerable part of it. The prince who achieved this conquest was Leovigild, whose victories over the Suevi established his warlike reputation, while he lost the more honorable fame of humanity by putting his own son to death, for supporting the catholic faith against Arianism. The throne was subsequently filled by seventeen princes of the same race, few of whom were worthy of that dignified station.

Roderic, having taken arms against the tyrant Witiza, procured the crown for himself, in 710; but he did not govern with wisdom or equity. The two sons of the late king, dreading his vindictive cruelty, fled to Ceuta, in Africa, and communicated their fears and their resentment to their uncle, the archbishop of Seville, and to the governor of the colony. As Roderic, in the wantonness of power, had offered violence to the daughter of count Julian, this nobleman also emigrated to Africa, and implored the aid of the Saracens for the dethronement of the king,

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A great number of the natives, disdaining to submit to the enemy, fled to the mountains which separate the province of Leon from the Asturias; and they found a leader in the person of Pelajo, who traced his descent from the royal line. The Cantabrians, or the people of Biscay, also flocked to his standard; and he kept the Moors in alarm by occasional irruptions into the territories which they had unwarrantably seized. One of their best officers marched against him, accompanied by the archbishop of Seville, who in vain urged him to submit to the necessity of the times. Retiring to a mountainous defile, Pelajo baffled all the efforts of the assailants, slew their commander, and put the prelate to death, as an enemy of his country. Of his subsequent conduct and exertions we have no certain knowledge; but he preserved the remains of the Visi-Gothic kingdom, and transmitted the crown to his descendants.

Abdalaziz having espoused the widow of Roderic, she advised him to assume the title of king of Spain; and, as he refused to violate his duty to the khalif, she contrived, by lowering the door of his apartment, to make his officers bow or stoop when they entered. Pretending that they had saluted him as king, she placed on his head a golden crown. He was instantly assassinated by the indignant warriors: but the country was more misgoverned after his death. Elhor fixed the seat of power at Cordova, and exercised the most tyrannic sway, not only over the Christians, but also over the Moslems.

Not content with the commanding influence which was thus exercised in Spain, Abdalrahman wished to add France to the Mohammedan conquests: but his expedition into the heart of that country, in 733, was so disastrous to himself and his army, that it completely checked the ambitious views of the infidels upon that part of Europe.

The Visi-Gothic king, dying in 735, was succeeded by his son Favila, whose death consigned the throne to Alfonso, surnamed the Catholic, son-in-law of Pelajo. While this small kingdom was slowly augmented by the recovery of towns and districts, intestine war arose among the Moors; and, as the authority of the khalif, or of his viceroys

in Africa, could not effectually repress these commotions, the idea of forming an independent kingdom in Spain occurred to Abdalrahman, the son of Moawiah, a man of talent and courage, who, taking advantage of the disaffection of the Moors to a new family, which had wrested the khalifate from the Omniad princes, assumed the royal title in 755, on pretence of his descent from the family of Mohammed, and prepared to govern with that policy and vigor which seemed to promise a restoration of order and tranquillity. He did not, however, establish his power without the intervention of arms. He was repeatedly attacked by the Moorish governor, over whom he was enabled to triumph by the superior number and determined zeal of his partisans. His administration was occasionally thwarted and disturbed by faction: but he boldly withstood all the efforts of his enemies, and died in peace after a reign of thirty-two years. The arts and sciences flourished under his sway; and few princes of that period were equal to him in political ability.

The kingdom of Oviedo, as that realm was called which Pelajo retained, was exposed to the danger of a powerful attack from Abdalrahman: but, when he was on his march for that purpose, he was recalled by the rumor of a commotion, and did not resume the enterprise. Froila, son of Alfonso, maintained the dignity of the Christian kingdom and extended its frontiers by his vigilance and activity. When the greater part of Galicia had been recovered, it was again invaded by the Moors, who destroyed the churches, and made dreadful havock; but they were so harassed in their retreat, that only a small part of their army escaped. Hesham, the son of Abdalrahman, gave orders for a new invasion, which, however, did not answer his expectations. This prince emulated his predecessor in the encouragement of the arts; and his son, Al-Hakem, did not degenerate in that respect. The new khalif (for that venerated title was assumed by the Moorish kings of Spain) would have been a very formidable enemy to the Christians, if he had not been frequently harassed by sedition and revolt. His successor, Abdalrahman II., commenced his reign, in 822, with great preparations for war; and, as Catalonia had been formed into a separate government by the united efforts of the Spaniards and French, he particularly aimed at the conquest of its capital. He accomplished that object; but he did not, during the remainder of his reign, so seriously impair the Christian interest, as his friends expected, or his enemies apprehended. In defiance of his power, a new state arose; for, in 828, the kingdom of Navarre was founded as a barrier against his arms. He took the city of Leon, which had been added to the Asturian realm, pillaged it, and involved it in flames: but he was severely chastised for this insult by Ramiro, who had succeeded Alfonso the Chaste. His troops were thrown into confusion near Calahorra, intimidated into the most disgraceful flight, and pursued with unsparing vengeance. In the reign of Ordoneo the Christians were also victorious over Mousa, a distinguished general, who had revolted from Abdalrahman's son Mohammed; but, when they had joined the son of that rebel, they suffered a sanguinary defeat. Alfonso III., who ascended the throne in 862, was a gallant and able defender of their cause: but, unfortunately, they were not animated by a spirit of concord. Their dissensions gave him great uneasiness: he was harassed with conspiracies and insurrections, and was at length induced to resign his crown.

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Leon, about the year 918. He was, at the same time, complete master of Galicia; and a great part of Old-Castile had been recovered before his accession; but, in consequence of his tyranny, that province shook off his yoke. Encouraged by the divisions among the Moslems, he invaded New-Castile, and defeated, near Talavera, the troops of Abdalrahman III., who was so alarmed at this bold intrusion, that he sent to Africa for military aid. The king of Leon, not discouraged, advanced to meet the enemy; and the Douro was tinged with the blood of the exasperated combatants, who fell in heaps on both sides. The victory, which was long doubtful, gave lustre to the Christian arms; and the khalif accepted such terms of peace as were dictated by his triumphant adversary: but he quickly violated the treaty, and rushed into Galicia, where Ordone engaged him with indecisive effect. He then made an irruption into Navarre, and furiously ravaged the country. After a long intermission of hostilities, Ramiro II. marched to the southward, stormed Madrid, and destroyed its fortifications. The Moors in return, advanced into Old-Castile, where they were routed by Ramiro and the count, who, entering Arragon, compelled the governor of Saragossa to become a tributary vassal. The battle of Simancas soon followed, in which the king's success was signal and complete. On this occasion, Abdalrahman escaped with the greatest difficulty, when about 30,000 of his men had been killed or wounded.

Notwithstanding the occasional misfortunes of his reign, the Moslem empire in Spain seems to have been in its greatest splendor, though not at its widest extent, at the time of Abdalrahman's death. Towns and villages were abundantly diffused over the peninsula: the population was far superior to that of modern times; agriculture flourished; mines of the precious metals poured forth their stores; varied manufactures and extensive commerce exercised the industry of the people; and the ordinary barbarity of the Mohammedan character was softened by the spirit of chivalry, the progress of refinement, and the increase of general knowledge.

Al-Hakem II., who succeeded Abdalrahman in 961, was more desirous of the preservation of peace, than intent on a continuation of the war: yet he gratified the animosity of his people by some expeditions against the Christians. His contemporaries in the kingdom of Leon were Sancho and Ramiro III. It is said of the former king, that he applied to a physician of the khalif's court for the removal of his corpulence, and was destroyed by the quackery, if not by the treachery, of his professional adviser; and it appears that the latter prince betrayed such profligacy and cruelty, as to rouse the indignation of his nobles, who drove him from the throne.

The minority of Hesham II., son of Al-Hakem, furnished a bold and ambitious officer with an opportunity of acquiring an exorbitant degree of power, which he continued to exercise after his sovereign had attained a maturity of age. Mohanmed Al-Mansour, acting with undisputed authority, renewed the war, in 982, by an incursion into Galicia, and the capture of Compostella. In the next campaign, he invaded the Asturias, and, when he was on the point of being defeated by Veremond II., suddenly turned the tide against the Spaniards, whom he so totally routed, that a mere wreck remained of their army. It is said, that he triumphed in fifty battles; but, if this be true, we may presume that most of them were partial and insignificant. He deprived Veremond of his capital after a long siege, and was so irritated at the obstinate defence of the garrison, that he ordered a general massacre of

the inhabitants, and nearly destroyed the city. His subsequent success roused three princes to the utmost vigor of exertion. Veremond drew the king of Navarre and the count of Castile into a league, and, in 998, led a great army into the field. Both parties displayed, during the day, all the enthusiasm and energy of courage; and night alone separated the combatants. While the Christians rested upon their arms, without boasting of the honor of victory, the Moors, by retiring in disorder, confessed their defeat. Al-Mansour was so confounded at this disgrace, that he refused to take that sustenance which is necessary for the support of life. His son Abdal-Malec assumed the chief political authority, and occasionally acted as a general; but, being defeated by the Castilians, he resigned to more intrepid and experienced officers the dangers and labors of the field. After his death, several aspiring men contended for the advantages of ministerial power, and a civil war ensued, during which Hesham was constrained to abdicate the throne, which was seized by Solyman, one of his relatives. The usurper, having excited general odium by his cruelty, was delivered up by the citizens of Cordova to his principal enemies, by whom he was put to death. Other usurpations followed; and persons who were related to the Ommiad family were sometimes elevated to a short-lived pre-eminence. At length, in 1038, the line of Abdalrahman failed; and the governors of towns, profiting by the disorders of the times, assumed the royal title, and governed with independent authority.

Before this dismemberment of the great Moslem kingdom, an important union of power arose from the success of Ferdinand, an ambitious and able prince. His father, Sancho the Great, one of whose predecessors had added the north-eastern part of Arragon to Navarre, had espoused the sister of the count of Old-Castile, and declared himself king of that country; and, on his death, the son was involved in a war with Veremond III., king of Leon, whom he slew in battle. The victor seized the vacant crown, and thus became, in 1035, sovereign of the whole country from the coast of Galicia to the frontiers of Navarre and Arragon, while those two kingdoms were governed by his brothers, Garcias and Ramiro; and, when the partition of sway took place among the Moors, he was the most powerful prince in the peninsula. He harassed the infidels with vigorous hostilities, subdued some parts of Portugal, and compelled the kings of Toledo, Seville, and Lisbon, to acknowledge his supremacy by the payment of an annual tribute. He died in 1065; and his dominions were for some time shared by his three sons; but Sancho, who succeeded him in Castile, dispossessed his brothers of their territories. In attempting, however, to rob his sister of some towns which formed her *appanage*, he was killed at Zamora, in 1072. His brother Alfonso then mounted the throne without opposition; and his reign was distinguished by the exploits of the *Cid* (or lord) Ruy Dias de Bivar, the mirror of chivalry, and the most renowned champion of the age. This warrior obtained many victories over the Moors; subdued New-Castile for his royal master; and also reduced Valencia, which he was permitted to govern with a degree of authority inferior only to that of Alfonso.

While the Moors were harassed and enfeebled by the efforts of the Christians, their princes were exposed to the danger of subjugation from a potentate of their own religion. The king of Cordova, being menaced by the Castilians with an attack, implored the aid of Yusef, king of Morocco, without considering the risque of being subsequently overwhelmed by his ally. An African army soon appeared in Spain;

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and, when Alfonso had been defeated, the victorious monarch returned to his own dominions: but, as his ambition prompted him to exercise a more authoritative influence in the affairs of Spain, he again crossed the strait of Gibraltar, dethroned the prince whom he had assisted, and also took possession of Granada and its dependencies. Alfonso, aware of the peril in which he was now involved, instituted a crusade against the Moslems, and invited knights and gallant adventurers, from France and other countries, to sustain the honor of the Christian arms. He was joined in this meritorious service by Sancho, king of Arragon; and the magnitude of the force which he led against Yusef, so discouraged that prince, that he abandoned his camp, and declined every challenge to a general conflict. Unwilling to remain inactive, Sancho turned his arms against the Moorish prince of Huesca, but lost his life at the siege of that city, which, however, his son Peter annexed to his kingdom.

After the death of Yusef, his successor Ali renewed the war with Alfonso, whose territories he ravaged with the fury of a barbarian, and whose troops he defeated with great slaughter. During these hostilities, the Castilian king died, in 1109. Toledo, which he had chosen for his capital, was immediately besieged by Ali, but not taken. As the late king had only left a natural daughter, Urraca, whom Alfonso the Arragonian had married, this prince assumed in her name the administration of Castile; and he employed the forces of the three realms (for he was also king of Navarre) in the humiliation of the infidels. He was victorious in many (some say twenty-nine) engagements; and several great towns, particularly Saragossa, fell into his hands. When the Castilians demanded, for their king, the grandson of their last sovereign, he quietly resigned his pretensions, and returned into Arragon. On a renewal of the war, he lost his life, in 1134, by that fervor of courage which hurried him into scenes of danger.

The reign of Alfonso VIII. was not highly distinguished by great exploits. He reduced some towns, and even gained possession of the city of Cordova; but he suffered it to be re-captured by the Moors; and, when the long siege of Lisbon excited the attention of all the princes in Spain, he did not contribute to its success. On his decease, in 1157, the kingdom of Castile was separated from that of Leon. His son Sancho reigned only for one year; but Alfonso IX. enjoyed the crown for fifty-five years.

The African princes had, for a long period, paid little attention to the affairs of Spain; but, when a new dynasty had been formed in Morocco, and the power of the usurping family seemed to be established, a great army again landed in the peninsula with views of conquest; and Yusef Abou-Yakoub advanced to Santarem in Portugal; but he was mortally wounded in a sally of the garrison. His son having invaded Spain in 1195, Alfonso, inflamed with rash presumption, encountered the Africans near Cordova, before he was joined by the troops of Arragon and Navarre; and the event was a sanguinary defeat. He again tried the fortune of war, and was severely checked. After an interval of forbearance, the next king of Morocco made extraordinary preparations for the ruin of the Christian cause in the peninsula. Making a very large deduction from the amount of Al-Naser's army, which, according to some Arabic historians, amounted to 420,000 men, or (as others say) to 600,000, we may presume that he had about 150,000 under his command. On the 16th of July, 1210, the armies of the three Christian kingdoms, strengthened by powerful accessions

from France and Italy, attacked the invaders with the most determined resolution, which, however, seemed to be on the point of yielding to the influence of terror, when the centre had made three fruitless attempts to break the hostile ranks. A renewal of exertion, in which the wings zealously joined, gave the victory to the confederate kings; and the anniversary of that glorious day is still celebrated in Castile. The disgrace of this signal defeat, and the revolt of the vassal princes in Spain from his supremacy, hastened the death of the Moorish king.

When the war had languished for some years, Ferdinand, the son of Alfonso, who re-joined Leon to Castile, distinguished himself by his success against the infidels. He deprived them of two of their most flourishing cities, Cordova and Seville, and rendered Murcia a vassal kingdom. James, king of Arragon, acquired high reputation by the conquest of the Balearic islands, and also of Valencia, which the Moors had recovered after the death of the Cid. Of the Moorish princes who at this time remained in power, the chief was Mohammed Abou-Said, who, in 1236, had founded the kingdom of Granada, which included the southern part of Andalusia. Being harassed by intestine commotions, while the Castilians were besieging his town of Jaen, he courted the aid of Ferdinand, by consenting to do homage to him for his realm, and to allow him one half of his revenue; but, as he assisted that prince in the reduction of Seville, Alfonso the Wise, who succeeded to the crown of Castile, remitted a part of the tribute. This harmony did not long subsist. The feudatory prince, being attacked by his lord-paramount, entered into an alliance with the king of Murcia, and expelled the Spanish garrisons from that city and its dependencies: but, after several campaigns, he was compelled to renew his submission to the Castilian king, who also recovered his authority in Murcia.

When Alfonso enjoyed peace, he amused himself with literary pursuits, and cultivated mathematics and astronomy: he also promoted justice and tranquillity by a new code of law. But he was disturbed in his honorable occupations by domestic dissensions. His brother Philip revolted, but was reclaimed by paternal admonitions. His second son Sancho, in the king's absence, acted with spirit against the sovereign of Morocco, who had invaded Spain with a mighty force, but he evinced, in the sequel, that perverseness and intractability, which, by prompting him to act the part of a rebel, induced his alarmed and offended parent to solicit the assistance of the African potentate. This was an impolitic and dangerous step, for which the commotions of his realm did not afford a sufficient excuse. A civil war, unchecked by the efforts of the African troops, afflicted the people for several years; but it was extinguished in 1284 by the death of Alfonso, whose grandson was easily supplanted by Sancho.

The new king could not expect to preserve his authority inviolate. He was harassed by the discontent which his conduct excited, and also by the hostilities of the infidels. His son Ferdinand IV. pacified his competitor by the grant of towns and lands, and suppressed all commotions by the vigor of his government. With the Moslem princes he was occasionally embroiled; and, in a war with the Grandnians, he was assisted by the king of Arragon, and was not wholly unsuccessful.

Alfonso XI., who succeeded him in 1312, is praised by historians both for political talents and warlike ability. Before he was of sufficient age for the personal exercise of the task of government, two princes of his family, who acted in his name, took up arms against the king of

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Granada; and both died in battle, not from wounds, but from heat, fatigue, and exhaustion. The war was continued with spirit by the young king, who could not, however, effectually triumph over a state which was supported by the power of Morocco. A detail of the war would be uninteresting; but a signal victory, obtained by the Spaniards in 1340, may be thought worthy of notice. When the kings of Morocco and Granada had invested Tarifa, Alfonso advanced against them with 39,000 men, among whom were the auxiliary troops of Arragon and Portugal. Philip, a French prince, who then reigned in Navarre, ingloriously avoided all concern in the war; but the confederates, without his aid, met with remarkable success: yet no reader who has common sense will believe, that 200,000 of the Moors were slain on that occasion, as some writers gravely affirm. Other gallant exploits were subsequently performed by the Christians; and Algeziras was reduced, after a siege of nineteen months, during which the defenders of the place are said to have made use of cannon for the first time.

The war did not terminate with the death of Alfonso. His son, Peter the Cruel, encouraged and supported a prince of his own character; who, after having obtained the crown by murder, was dethroned by another usurper. The reigning prince, having procured assistance from the king of Arragon, gained some advantages over the Castilians, and, in particular, slew or captured a whole corps near Guadix. This disgrace inflamed Peter with a thirst of vengeance. He immediately entered into a negotiation with the Arragonian prince, and detached him from the interest of the Moslem king, who, despairing of success in the field, repaired to Seville, and offered to his adversary most valuable presents for the favor of peace. A polite answer was returned by the tyrant; but he soon after ordered the royal suppliant, and thirty-five of his friends and attendants, to be put to death, though he had given them a solemn promise of safety before they would venture to appear at his court. He then reinstated his friend, whose subsequent reign was long and pacific.

Some authors have endeavoured to rescue the memory of Peter from odium and execration, by representing him as just rather than cruel: but there are sufficient proofs of the applicability of the epithet by which he has been stigmatised. The murder of his father's concubine and of his own wife, and the death of many nobles who had merely excited his suspicions or offended his pride, stamp his character with merited infamy. His natural brother Henry, dreading the same fate, revolted from him; and, being unable to dethrone him without foreign assistance, engaged a body of French and other adventurers, who, in 1366, drove the despot into exile. Edward the Black Prince, who then governed Aquitaine, afforded an asylum to the royal fugitive, and even led an army into Spain to attack the usurper, whom he defeated at Najara near the Ebro. As Peter treated the English prince with perfidy and ingratitude, he did not long preserve the crown which he had regained. Henry confounded all his efforts in another battle; and, when the vanquished and enraged king was rushing toward him, stabbed him to the heart.

Notwithstanding the illegitimacy of Henry, he was permitted to wear the crown, which, in 1379, devolved without opposition to his son John, who also claimed the crown of Portugal in his wife's right, and even risked a battle to obtain it, but did not accomplish his object. Mohammed Abou-Hajad, who at the same time ruled over Granada, was a wise and moderate prince, and courted the friendship of the Castilian king;

but, in the reign of John II., the war was renewed between the rival nations. The chief advantages were obtained by the Spaniards, who could not, however, with all their own valor and the martial skill of their sovereign, annihilate the Granadian realm.

The successor of John was Henry IV., who attended more to pleasure and dissipation than to the duties of royalty. He did not emulate the fame, or imitate the administrative policy, of his contemporary Alfonso, king of Arragon and Sicily, called the wise and the magnanimous. He was deposed by the nobles for his misconduct, with great solemnity, in 1465; and the crown was transferred to his brother Alfonso. A civil war arose; the new king died while it was raging; and his partisans supported the pretensions of Henry's sister Isabella, whose prospect of a throne induced Ferdinand, the aspiring son of John II., king of Arragon, to offer her his hand. His addresses were accepted; and Henry was reinstated, after he had acknowledged Isabella as his heirress, although he and his queen peremptorily declared that Joan, who was suspected of being born in adultery, was their legitimate daughter. On the king's death, in 1474, Isabella's claim was confirmed, and a territorial union which promised great benefit to Spain was effected, but not without a renewal of commotion and of war.

When tranquillity had been restored, Ferdinand employed himself for some years in improving the general state of the country. He then directed his views to the conquest of Granada, not because Abou'l-Hassan had endeavoured to profit by the late disturbances of Castile, but from motives of policy. While he was maturing his preparations, an armistice, which he had concluded for temporary convenience, was violated by the Mohammedan king, who took Zahara by storm, and slew or captured the whole garrison. This outrage was retaliated by the seizure of Alhama: and the war was continued for many years with mutual animosity.

The dissensions among the principal inhabitants of Granada, and the conflicting claims of rival kings (for one faction proclaimed Abou-Abdallah, the son of Abou'l-Hassan), tended to promote the success of the Christians, who defeated the Moors near Lucena, and captured their young king. The death of the elder prince did not allay the rancor of party. His brother, Al-Zagal, who was invested with the *insignia* of royalty, put to death many of the adherents of Abou-Abdallah, who, having recovered his liberty by promising to become the tributary vassal of Ferdinand, contended with his uncle for the possession of the capital, in an indecisive conflict which deluged the city with blood.

In the progress of this calamitous contest, many considerable towns and fortresses were taken by the Spaniards; and Al-Zagal, wishing to conciliate his Spanish adversary, surrendered to him those which he still possessed. After this transfer, the city of Granada alone remained under Moorish sway. It had a double circuit of wall, furnished with a multiplicity of towers, and two citadels, erected on the two hills upon which the town stood. The difficulty of reducing it by a siege induced Ferdinand to have recourse to a blockade; and, when he had continued eight months in his entrenched camp, he was gratified by Abou-Abdallah, in 1492, with the full possession of the city. He engaged to leave the inhabitants unmolested, and even to allow them the privilege of retaining their religious worship; but he was less indulgent to the Jews, all of whom, at the time of this conquest, he banished from his kingdom, except such as consented to embrace Christianity. Some lands were assigned

to the Moorish king at Fez.

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to the Moorish king: but he soon quitted Spain, and fixed his residence at Fez.

Thus did the persevering efforts of the Spaniards extinguish that dominion which had subsisted in their country for almost eight centuries. The people whom they conquered were superior to them in those arts which tend to humanise nations: yet it must be acknowledged, that there was a tincture of ferocity in the Moors, which detracted from their boasted civilisation.

After this success over an infidel race, Ferdinand received from the pope the title of the Catholic, which he also earned by the most iniquitous and inhuman act of his reign; for he established the inquisition, —an execrable tribunal, which consigned to death, within a few years, many thousands of his unoffending subjects, because they were not zealous in that religion which he professed.

The year which was distinguished by the reduction of Granada, was also rendered memorable by a grand discovery, which led to a series of conquest and colonisation. We allude to the voyage of Columbus, whom Ferdinand and Isabella encouraged in his enlightened views: but, as this subject more properly belongs to a different part of our work, we must for the present dismiss it. The other remarkable acts of Ferdinand's reign were, the unjust and treacherous seizure of the kingdoms of Navarre and Naples, and his concern in the unprincipled league of Cambray. By the death of Isabella, in 1504, he lost all right to the administration of Castile, except in the name of his daughter Joan, who had been married to the archduke Philip; but he continued to govern that realm to the end of his life. His death, in 1516, consigned an extensive range of territory to the sway of his grandson Charles, who succeeded Maximilian as emperor of Germany.

The reign of Charles was pregnant with memorable incidents: but, in this sketch, we can only give a cursory view. When cardinal Ximenes had governed Spain with ability, he was dismissed from the reins of state with some marks of illiberal contempt; —a treatment by which his dissolution was accelerated. Charles soon began to take an active part in the politics of Europe, and to manifest an eager desire of influencing the conduct of other princes. But it was his rival Francis who disturbed the peace of the continent, by invading the kingdom of Navarre, which was quickly reduced by the French, and as easily recovered by the Spaniards. Hostilities also arose in the Netherlands provinces which had devolved to Charles; and the war was extended to Italy, where his troops gained possession of the Milanese and of Genoa, and afterward triumphed over Francis at Pavia. That prince, being unable to escape, purchased his liberation by acquiescing in terms which he had no intention of observing: such was the honor of that age! A person of a more sacred character also fell into the hands of the imperialists. This was the pope himself, whose capital was stormed and pillaged by the duke of Bourbon, then in the service of Charles. Peace was at length restored, in 1529; and the emperor took the opportunity of attending to the concerns of religion, which, by opposing the protestants, he endeavoured to retain in a state of corruption. To the affairs of the states of Barbary, he subsequently directed his attention. He attacked the city of Tunis; defeated Barbarossa, the usurper of the sovereignty of that state; and, after a dreadful slaughter, gave up the town to a vassal king. In 1536, he renewed the war with the king of France, but suffered severely in a rash invasion of that realm. He was also involved in a war with the Turks,

whom he did not resist with spirit or success. He undertook, in 1541, an expedition to Algier, which proved a most disastrous enterprise. He drove the protestants into a war; and defeated and oppressed Frederic, elector of Saxony, but was checked and humbled by the treaty of Passau. In the mean time, he governed Spain with arbitrary violence, and acted in the Netherlands with the most arrogant tyranny.

Weary of the pursuits of ambition, Charles, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, adopted a resolution that filled all Europe with astonishment, withdrawing himself entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, that he might spend the remainder of his days in devout solitude. 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. That dignity they conferred on Ferdinand, the brother of Charles, thus dividing the dangerous power of the house of Austria into two branches. Spain, with all its possessions in Asia 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.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was austere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, the supposed destroyer of his son Carlos and his third wife, 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 in the year 1557. This prince lost his life and a fine army, in a headstrong, unjust, and ill-concerted expedition against the Moors, in Africa; and, in 1580, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family had a prior claim.

His descendants proved to be very weak princes; but he and his father had so totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that even these imbecile monarchs reigned almost unmolested in their own dominions. Philip III., whose reign commenced in 1598, continued the war with France, into which the late king had entered, and endeavoured to reclaim the Dutch provinces from their revolt: but his ill success induced him, in 1609, to consent to a truce for twelve years. This was an act of expedient policy; but his expulsion of the Morescoes, or the posterity of the Moors, by which his kingdom lost an important and useful part of its population, must be considered as an act of injustice, folly, and bigotry.

Philip IV., who reigned from the year 1621 to 1665, renewed the war with Holland, yet without that vigor which alone could quell the revolt. He was harassed by the hostilities of France; attacked by Oliver Cromwell with success; and lost Portugal by the impolicy of his government. His successor, Charles II., was deprived of various parts of the Netherlands by the ambition of Louis XIV., who, not content with the spoils of one war, indulged his arbitrary and encroaching spirit in a renewal of hostilities. He was encouraged on these occasions by the visible decline of the Spanish power and the

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unwarlike character of the king; but, at the peace of Ryswick, he condescended to relinquish some of his usurpations, and subsequently courted the favor of that prince whom he had before endeavoured to injure.

When the royal branch of the Austrian family in Spain failed in the person of Charles II., who left no issue, the duke of Anjou, grandson to Louis XIV., mounted that throne, in virtue of his predecessor's will, by the name of Philip V., in 1701. After a long and bloody struggle with the German branch of the house of Austria, supported by Great-Britain, he was confirmed in his dignity at the conclusion of the war, by the shameful peace of Utrecht, in 1713. And thus Louis, through a masterly train of politics, accomplished his favorite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich possessions in America and the Indies, from the house of Austria to his own family. In 1734, Philip invaded Naples, and procured that kingdom for his son Charles, the natives readily acknowledging him for their sovereign, in consequence of the indignation which they felt at the domineering spirit and iniquitous administration 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 pacific 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. He was succeeded by his brother, the king of Naples.

Charles III. 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 the British court, the latter took from him the Havana, and thus commanded 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 the Havana was restored to Spain. In 1775, an expedition was concerted against Algier by the Spanish ministry, which had a most unsuccessful termination. The troops, which amounted to 25 000, commanded by lieutenant-general O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to the eastward of the city of Algier, but were disgracefully repelled, when almost 3000 of their number had been killed or wounded.

When the war between Great-Britain and its 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. 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 made on the 13th of September, 1782, under the command of the duke de Crillon, by ten battering ships, furnished with 212 guns, which discharged shot of the weight of twenty-six pounds. The showers of shot and shells which were directed from them, from the 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, during the night, several were in flames. All were at length consumed, and the fortress retained its proud character of impregnability. In a former enterprise, the Spaniards had proved more successful. The island of Minorca was surrendered to them, after having been besieged for 171 days. The garrison consisted of no more than 2692 men, while the force of the enemy amounted to 16,000. 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 defenders would have shown themselves equally invincible with those of Gibraltar, had it been possible to relieve them in the same manner. By the treaty which put an end to these hostilities, Spain obtained favorable terms, being allowed to retain Minorca and Florida.

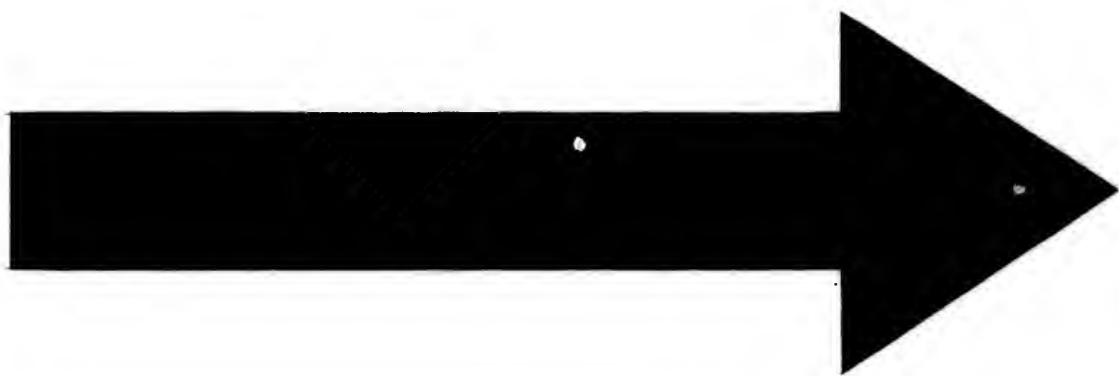
Amidst the progress of the French revolution, the contemptuous rejection of the humane interference of the court of Spain in favor of Louis XVI., and the representations of the confederate sovereigns, induced Charles IV., who had succeeded his father in 1788, to declare war against France. The chief incidents of this war, the treaty of peace concluded by Spain with the French republic, and the subsequent hostilities with Great-Britain till the conclusion of the peace of Amiens, have already been mentioned in this work.

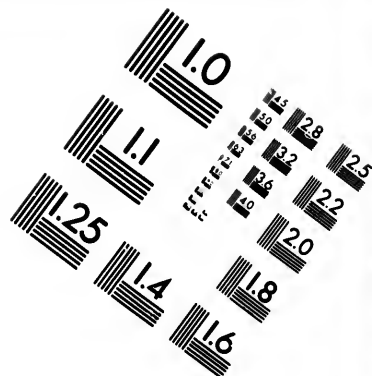
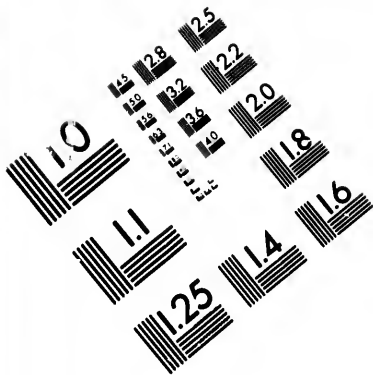
After the peace of Amiens, Spain, under the direction of Manuel Godoy (styled the Prince of the Peace, from his having negotiated the peace with the French republic), still continued obsequiously subservient to the views of France, under the government of Bonaparté, who drew from that country large sums of money, for the prosecution of his ambitious views. England, to prevent this, boldly intercepted some frigates that were conveying to Spain a quantity of treasure from South America; of which, it was evident, a great part would be transmitted to France. A war in consequence took place between the countries. But at length the ruler of France, elate with his success over the Prussians and their allies, formed an iniquitous scheme of usurpation. He resolved to transfer the crown of Spain to his own family; and, under the pretence of dismembering the Portuguese realm, some portions of which he promised to the minister Godoy and his feeble sovereign, he procured the royal assent, in October 1807, to the admission of an army, which should march through Spain with the native troops. By acceding to this base compact, Charles evinced both weakness and treachery, and deprived himself of all claim to the sympathy of Europe. About 25,000 French infantry and 3,000 cavalry soon appeared on the south-western side of the Pyrenees, and marched into Portugal with the flower of the Spanish army, under the command of marshal Junot, who assured the regent that his sole object was to assist the people in shaking off the yoke of Great-Britain. While the invaders were employed in over-awing the court of Lisbon, 40,000 more of Napoleon's soldiers were introduced, with the consent or connivance of Charles, into Catalonia and Navarre, and additional troops quickly followed. Barcelona and other strong towns were garrisoned by these pretended friends of the Spaniards; and their leader Murat prepared them for the most atrocious acts, to which, indeed, they required little persuasion. He endeavoured to work upon the king's fears, that the emigration of the royal family might leave the throne open to an infamous usurper; and Charles was ready to fall into the snare, if his subjects of every class had not signified their strong disapprobation of his intended retreat. Ferdinand, the heir apparent of the crown,

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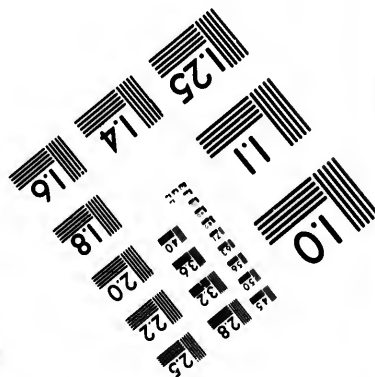
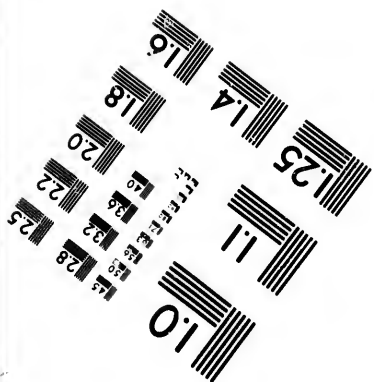
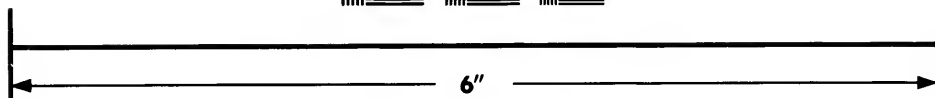
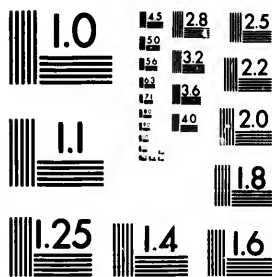
having for some time been at variance with his father, chiefly in consequence of the arts and intrigues of Godoy, listened to the suggestions of the French ambassador, and, instead of accepting a matrimonial offer proposed by the king, courted an alliance with the family of the emperor of France. This conduct gave great disgust to the court; and the artifices of Napoleon's representative fanned the flame of discord. A tumult at the seat of government, and other commotions, which led to the imprisonment of a hated minister, terrified Charles into a resignation, the consequence of which was the elevation of his son to the throne, in March 1808, by the style of Ferdinand VII. This was not the particular change at which Napoleon aimed; and its annulment was therefore the immediate object of Murat, who was as eager to promote the flagitious views of his patron, as if his own life had depended on the success of the scheme of invasion. He advised the senior prince to resume his authority; and, in his name, he acted as administrator of the realm. The new king, in the mean time, was invited by the ruler of France, under the mask of friendship, to repair to the frontiers, that the dispute between him and his father might be accommodated by the persuasions and arbitration of a friendly potentate. He complied with the request, and was detained at Bayonne by his artful enemy, who also prevailed upon Charles to undertake the same imprudent journey. The consequence was such as might easily have been foreseen by all who were not blinded by credulity. Both the father and the son were inveigled or intimidated into an absolute abandonment of their pretensions to the throne, and into a transfer of it to any individual whom the encroaching despot might wish to nominate. Alarmed at the prospect of a foreign yoke, the Spaniards roused themselves from their seeming apathy, and resolved to oppose the intended usurpation, more particularly after the perpetration of a horrible massacre at Madrid by the orders of Murat. They organised *juntas* or administrative councils in the chief towns, in the name of Ferdinand, whom, in consequence of his father's abdication, they considered as their lawful sovereign: but the kingdom had been reduced to such a state of weakness and inefficiency by the neglect of every department of the public service, during the sway of an unworthy and even treacherous minister, that only a disordered government, an empty treasury, and the shadow of an army, existed. This prospect did not discourage the people: they trusted to the magnitude of the national resources, to their own spirit and patriotism, and to the assistance which they had reason to expect from some of the powers that were inimical to France: but their applications for aid were successful only in one instance; for Great-Britain alone was willing or ready to comply with their urgent solicitations. Hostilities arose in different parts before the irregular assembly at Bayonne, consisting of timid or treacherous Spaniards, voted for a grant of the sovereignty of their country to Joseph Bonaparté, who had no other pretensions than those of an aspiring and rapacious adventurer.

The patriots were successful in their early operations, more particularly in the affair of Baylen. With such effect did they harass Dupont, that they compelled him, after a spirited conflict, to surrender himself and all his troops to their disposal. They also baffled the views of the enemy at Saragossa, which, though it could scarcely be termed a fortified post, was defended by extraordinary exertions of courage and zeal, with great loss on both sides. But the French, soon after, met with such success, as flattered their sovereign with the hope of establishing his brother Joseph on the Spanish throne. They defeated general Blake at Reynosa, and





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dispersed his army: they routed, near Tudela, the troops which Castanos led into the field; and re-opened to the usurper the possession of Madrid, from which he had retired in a moment of consternation.

The ministerial choice of sir John Moore, as the commander of an army destined to oppose a powerful enemy, was not the most judicious. His courage was unquestioned, and he was acquainted with ordinary tactics; but he had not the talents or the fortitude of a great general. He listened to every idle report of the approach of the French: he dreaded, from their increasing force, the ruin of his army; and he seemed to be solely intent on escaping from a country which the natives, he pretended, were unwilling to defend. His officers were ready to act in the most spirited manner, rather than disgrace themselves by a rapid retreat: and, though he reprimanded them, in public orders, for presuming to dictate to him, he was urged by their zeal and impatience to a display of boldness and resolution. He advanced with 29,000 men to attack marshal Soult, who then had only 16,000 under his command: but the arrival of terrific intelligence quickly induced him to resume his retreat with accelerated movements, notwithstanding the defensibility of many parts of the Gallician province. In the disorderly march, a great number perished by cold, fatigue, and famine; and, when the rest of the army reached Corunna, a battle (in January 1809) became unavoidable, before an embarkation could be attempted. Soult, whose force had been so far augmented, as to give him the advantage over his opponents, ordered an attack in dense columns, one of which seemed likely to make a serious impression upon the British right, when Sir John Moore had been carried off the field mortally wounded: but the troops, not discouraged, frustrated every attempt to force their position. The centre and left also repelled the impetuous foe, with few pieces of artillery, and without the aid of cavalry, inflicting a loss considerably greater than that which they suffered in the battle: yet, from the commencement of the march, to that embarkation which immediately followed the repulse of the French, it is supposed that the British loss did not fall short of 7000 men. A greater misfortune would not have paralysed the zeal of the court; and, therefore, the Spaniards did not long remain unassisted. Although it was the opinion of the unfortunate general, that they were so destitute of patriotic zeal, as to be absolutely unworthy of aid or support, the ministers resolved not to neglect the prosecution of the new war. Preparations were made for another expedition to the peninsula, even while the French were triumphing in the acquisition of various provinces, and eagerly endeavouring to create, among their opponents, an impression of being too powerful to be resisted; while (in the language of colonel Jones) "a half-starved disorganised band, with some fugitive corps in La Mancha and Estremadura, formed the only remaining military force of Spain; and while the number of the enemy, spread over the country, fell little short of 200,000 men."

At this crisis the exertions of some of the Spanish generals restored order to the dispersed troops, re-embodied the patriotic force, and checked the progress of the French detachments. But the prospect was still gloomy; and the enemy proved victorious in the battles of Medellin and Ciudad-Real, and made dreadful havock among the heroic defenders of Saragossa, which was taken after a second siege. Sir Arthur Wellesley at length appeared in Spain with a considerable army; and he concerted, with the Spanish general Cuesta, a plan of operations, by which it was hoped that the metropolis would be recovered, and other important advantages obtained.

Both armies would immediately intentions of his troops, and to retreat to time, sir Arthur assault with brought up the made a fierce in the rear, with charge on the ance was so spon was offered charge which British position of light dragoons parts of the checked by the was not fully niards did not affirmed, the character of or were wou cording to Rescued from troops haste who had eve the field of vated force, and defeat likewise, the talonia the and, in Le to those ag ency; for broken by In the r delegation tered the a with that loudly call which ha nearly co for that p rently sat authority The ca the Span phantly c force: ar the speed some stro Portugal to watch their ow

Both armies advanced against marshal Victor, not expecting that he would immediately be reinforced: but that commander, aware of the intentions of the hostile generals, readily augmented the number of his troops, and moved forward so expeditiously, that Cuesta was obliged to retreat to the Alberche, to avoid a ruinous attack. In the mean time, sir Arthur, having judiciously arranged his force, awaited an assault with a firm countenance. After a partial action, the French brought up their whole force on the 28th of July, and the infantry made a fierce attack upon the British line, while the cavalry paraded in the rear, with a view of completing the victory by an overwhelming charge on that point which might be first penetrated. But the resistance was so spirited, that no opportunity of making a decisive impression was offered to the eager wishes of the enemy. That furious charge which was made upon the left, supposed to be the key of the British position, was repelled, yet not without the ruin of a regiment of light dragoons, whose courage bordered upon rashness. In other parts of the line, the most strenuous efforts of the French were checked by the same determined spirit; and, if the claim of victory was not fully substantiated on the part of the allies, because the Spaniards did not zealously endeavour to promote it, it may at least be affirmed, that the battle of Talavera was honorable to the military character of Great-Britain. About 9,500 of the French lost their lives or were wounded; and almost 6000 of the confederates suffered, according to the English and Spanish narratives of the engagement. Rescued from danger, rather than gratified with triumph, the British troops hastened toward the frontiers of Portugal; while the French, who had even resigned a part of their artillery, that their retreat from the field of Talavera might not be delayed, re-advanced with a renovated force, routed a numerous army of the patriots in New-Castile, and defeated a still greater host in the same province. In Arragon, likewise, the Spaniards were enfeebled by disastrous conflicts: in Catalonia they suffered great loss in the obstinate defence of Gerona; and, in Leon, the last battle of the year seemed dreadfully ominous to those advocates of the Spanish cause who were prone to despondency; for the troops displayed so little firmness or spirit, that they were broken by the first charge of cavalry, and fled in consternation.

In the mean time, a supreme council which had been formed by a delegation of two members from the junta of each province, administered the affairs of the realm with some degree of prudence, but not with that energy which the crisis required. The public therefore loudly called for a convocation of the *cortes*, or that general assembly which had been so long discontinued, that it seemed to have been nearly consigned to oblivion. A proclamation was reluctantly issued for that purpose by the rulers of the kingdom; and the people, apparently satisfied, acquiesced in the prolonged sway of the constituted authorities.

The campaign of the year 1810 threatened to be more disastrous to the Spaniards than it ultimately proved. As the French had triumphantly closed the war with Austria, they had a greater disposable force: and their arrogant master did not scruple to pledge himself for the speedy expulsion of the English from the peninsula. Having taken some strong towns in the province of Leon, marshal Massena invaded Portugal; and, as lord Wellington deemed it more particularly expedient to watch the enemy in that kingdom, the Spaniards were left for a time to their own exertions.

It was at this time that the *guerrilla* branch of the war commenced, which the French affected to deride, while they were severely harassed by the alertness of the various parties that scoured the country, and skilfully eluded pursuit. When the enemy over-ran Andalusia, Cadiz was opportunely secured against intrusion, and became the chief seat of power, being in vain besieged or blockaded. The supreme junta being thought too numerous for an executive body, five distinguished persons were invested with the regency; and the vigor of the government seemed thus to be augmented. In the autumn, the cortes assembled; and the majority soon displayed a popular spirit. Various reforms were proposed, with a view of preparing the nation for the enjoyment of freedom; but the intended gift was coolly received by an ignorant and priest-ridden nation.

From the increasing strength, or the more resolute exertions of the enemy, the Spaniards suffered greater loss and injury, in 1811, than they had sustained in the preceding year. Their British and Portuguese associates, indeed, under the command of sir William Beresford, boldly supported their cause at Albuera, by the defeat of marshal Soult, 7000 of whose men were killed, wounded, or captured; and general Graham triumphed over a superior force at Barrosa: but these advantages were dearly purchased; and the French, by the murderous siege of Tarragona and the reduction of Valencia, obtained a commanding sway over the whole eastern coast.

The next campaign was opened by lord Wellington with an important siege. He invested Ciudad-Rodrigo with a full determination of reducing it, unless the loss which might attend the progress of the siege should be extremely severe. He confounded the enemy by the celerity of his operations, and, amidst the rigors of winter, effectually stormed the fortress. The capture of Badajoz being thought equally necessary, he besieged it for three weeks, and then assaulted it with similar success. Encouraged by these acquisitions, he marched in the summer against the French army in Leon, and engaged Marmont near Salamanca, when that commander had made some injudicious movements. There was no great disparity of force on either side; but, in point of position, the advantage was on the side of the French. When the marshal endeavoured to turn the right of lord Wellington's position, that scheme was counter-acted by the opportune addition of strength to the menaced division, and the French left was boldly and dexterously out-flanked. At the same time, a Portuguese brigade received a check, in attempting to gain the bold height of the Arapiles; and some British divisions, which, having assailed the centre with impetuous vigor, were pursuing their early success along the crest of the enemy's position, were exposed to danger by the sudden approach of a strong corps from the eminence toward their left flank: but, by altering the direction of a reserved brigade, the advancing troops were checked, and the arrival of another division completed their confusion. The French right yet remained to be routed; and that service was ably performed. After this victory, Madrid and Seville were re-taken, and Cadiz was relieved from blockade: but the British arms failed in the siege of Burgos, and even lord Wellington was obliged to seek an asylum on the western frontiers. As this disappointment and apparent disgrace did not, in the opinion of the cortes, detract from that fame which the general had established by his victory at Salamanca, they invested him with the chief command of the native armies, promising that at least 50,000 men should be ready, not merely to appear in arms, but to act with determined vigor;

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and, while the French empire felt the effects of the rash expedition to Russia, there was a great probability of the speedy and complete recovery of Spain.

Without reckoning the disposable Spanish force, 71,000 men (British, German subsidiaries, and Portuguese) composed that army which left its cantonments in the spring of the year 1813, to force in the first instance the passage of the Douro. All the movements for that purpose were effective; and the enemy, surprised at this bold advance, retired to some positions in Old-Castile. The hopes of the allies were elevated by the confusion which appeared among the usurper's troops; and it was resolved that an attempt should be made to bring them to a decisive conflict. The desired opportunity presented itself in the environs of Vittoria. An attack was made, on the 21st of June, by the British right, which dislodged a strong corps from a mountainous post, and, eagerly prosecuting the advantage, stormed a village, the loss of which deprived the hostile centre of its chief support. This division was then assaulted, and quickly driven in disorder toward the city. The rest of the engagement was a spirited contest for various positions; and the result was a signal victory on the part of the allies. About 8000 of the French were killed, wounded, or made prisoners, and the remains of their army fled in consternation toward the Pyrenees. When farther success had attended the British arms, and when the troops of the chief continental princes were marching to Paris, Bonaparté, making a virtue of necessity, accommodated all disputes with Ferdinand, and permitted him to return to Spain.

The conduct of the restored king excited general surprise and disgust. Instead of testifying his gratitude for the zeal of the cortes, and the faithful services of his people, he denied the legality of the assembly, and extended over all ranks the rigors of despotism. He annulled the constitution which the cortes had prepared, alleging that it violated the rights of the crown, and tended to encourage popular licentiousness; and he imprisoned and harassed some of the leading members, as if they had been audacious democrats or vile incendiaries. He gave his confidence to priests and inquisitors, and acted more like the narrow-minded ruler of a monastery than the politic sovereign of a great kingdom. An insurrection, to which his misgovernment exposed him, was quickly suppressed, because it was partial and ill-concerted; and he continued his former career, without reflecting on the odium which would necessarily attend it. While he affected to admire that display of British courage and military skill, which had contributed to the preservation of his crown, he threw out illiberal insinuations against the heretical soldiery, whose inattention to forms and ceremonies had shocked his pious subjects; and he requited the zealous aid of our government and nation, by diminishing the facilities and conveniences of commerce. He pretended to join in the new league against the perfidious prince of Elba, but did not promote, even in the smallest degree, the success of the renovated war.

For some years, the king viewed with great anxiety the progress of that revolt in his South-American colonies, which commenced when he was a captive in France. He made repeated attempts to interest the regent of Great-Britain and other princes in the cause of order and regular government, alleging that it was the duty of every court to oppose the disorganising spirit of democratic insurgents: but they heard his complaints with indifference, and coolly left him to his own exertions. He was on the point of sending out an army to reclaim or subdue the

revolters, when (on the 1st of January, 1820) some battalions stationed near Cadiz, detesting his arbitrary spirit, confined the officers who refused to join them in an insurrection, and called for a representative government. While the insurrection was rapidly spreading, a horrible massacre was perpetrated at Cadiz by the treacherous cruelty of the royal party; but it rather promoted than checked the views of colonel Riego and other popular leaders, to whose dictates the king was obliged to submit. The cortes met on the 9th of July, and undertook the task of reform; but their proceedings gave such disgust to the haughty members of the holy continental confederacy, that, when the Austrians had re-adjusted, according to the emperor's discretion, the affairs of Naples and Piedmont, the French, in 1823, invaded Spain with similar views, and (in the manner which we have stated in our history of France) restored Ferdinand to the exercise of arbitrary power. Since that time, he has acted in the most tyrannical manner, disregarding the true interest of his country, violating all law, severely punishing suspected malcontents, and constraining many of his most respectable subjects, by the influence of terror, to seek in England an asylum from his brutality.

Ferdinand VII. was born October 14, 1784; was first married to Maria Antonia, princess of Naples; secondly, to Maria Isabella, second daughter of John VI. king of Portugal; and, thirdly, to Maria Josephina, niece of the king of Saxony.

Brothers to the king:—Carlos Maria Isidor, born March 29, 1788; married to the princess Maria Francescina of Portugal;—Francisco de Paula, born March 10, 1794; married to Louisa Charlotte, granddaughter of Ferdinand IV. of Naples.

PORTUGAL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 350	} between	{ 37 and 42 north latitude.
Breadth 120		{ 6 and 9, 15 west longitude.

Containing 27,070 square miles, with above 92 inhabitants to each.

NAMES.] PORTUGAL was known to the ancients by the name of Lusitania, derived by the mythologists from Lysias, the son of Bacchus, who is said to have settled a colony in that country. The modern name of Portugal is allowed to be derived from *Cale*, the ancient name of Oporto, with the addition of *Porto*, 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 longitudinal form of the country, it is naturally divided into three parts, which contain six provinces. In the northern division are those of Entre Douro e Minho, and Tras os Montes; in the middle portion are Beira and Estremadura; and, in the southern, Alentejo and Algarve. These provinces contain a population of about two millions and a half.

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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 Monte-junto 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 the continent of Europe. The cape contiguous to it, at the mouth of the Tajo, is called the rock of Cintra, or of Lisbon.

FORESTS.] Portugal contains few forests; but there is one which is very extensive, beginning at Marinha Grande, about 57 miles from Lisbon, consisting almost entirely of pine-trees, which used to afford all the timber that was required for ship-building.

RIVERS, LAKES, MINERAL WATERS.] The Tagus or Tajo was anciently celebrated for its golden sand. It has its source in the mountains of Molina, near the borders of Arragon; whence it runs for the most part to the 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, particularly about Villa Franca and Santarem, so as to render 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 which absorb even 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 Elvas. The iron-mines are well known, but are neglected for want of fuel; though coal has been found in different parts. Portugal produces beautiful marble, 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 tempered by the sea-breezes.

The soil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, especially in corn; and agriculture 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.] Fruit 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, they are not so highly flavored as those of Spain. The Portuguese wines, when old and genuine, are esteemed to be very friendly to the human constitution.

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 flavor, whence the Portuguese hams are preferred in most parts of Europe to those of other countries.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] These consist principally of the lakes already mentioned, and some extraordinary caverns. In the province of *Tras os Montes*, at a place called *San 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 above 500 feet in depth. 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 500. The lake of *Escura*, on the summit of the mountain of *Estrella*, is of a depth hitherto unascertained; its water is of a dark-green color, 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 its inland situation. It is added, in corroboration of this conjecture, that it is smooth or agitated as the sea is tranquil or rough, and that in stormy weather it makes a rumbling noise, which may be heard at the distance of many miles.

The cork convent or hermitage, near Lisbon, may be called both a natural and artificial curiosity. It has subterranean apartments, which receive light from holes cut obliquely in the rocks, and are lined with cork, to guard against humidity; but the church, sacristy, and chapter-house, are built over the surface. The cells are occupied by twenty monks or hermits of the order of *St. Francis*, who follow the most abstemious and temperate mode of living.

**NATIONAL CHARACTER, } The modern Portuguese retain little
MANNERS, CUSTOMS. }** of that adventurous, enterprising spirit which 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. Treachery, ingratitude, an intemperate passion for revenge, and other bad qualities, have been imputed to them: among the lower people thieving is too commonly practised; and all ranks are accused of being unfair in their dealings, especially with strangers.

The Portuguese are neither so tall nor so well-made as the Spaniards, whose habits and customs they imitate; only persons of quality affect to be more gaily and richly dressed. The ladies are thin and small of stature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes are 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, and are very fond of dark mantles and veils. They are taught by their husbands to exact from their servants a homage that is paid, in other countries, only to royal personages; yet many, on the other hand, treat their domestics with too great familiarity. The furniture of the houses, especially of the grandees, is rich and superb to excess; and they maintain a great number of domestics, as they rarely discharge any who survive after serving their progenitors. The poorer sort have scarcely any furniture at all; for they, in imitation of the Moors, sit cross-legged on the ground. The Portuguese peasant has reaped little advantage (except a few golden trinkets for the female part of his family) from the benefits of foreign trade and of colonial possessions.

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Almost 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 ; but this is a regale which he seldom obtains. Some bread made of Indian corn, rice, and a salted pilchard, or a head of garlick, or grains of aniseed, to give that bread a flavor, compose his standing dish ; and if he can get a piece of the hog, the ox, or the calf, which 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 might possess beyond this habitual penury would quickly be taken from him, or rather he would willingly part with it, being taught by his spiritual comforters, with whom 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 ; for, though he did not very lately visit that country, the difference between his time and the present, is not very considerable. "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 toward the horse's head when they ride. A postilion 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 that their country is the blessed Elysium, and that Lisbon is the greatest city in the world."

[CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Lisbon is situated near the mouth of the Tagus, on seven hills, and contains many grand and stately edifices, among which one of the principal is the patriarchal church. The treasures of sacred reliques, gold, silver, precious stones, and costly furniture of this venerable structure, are immense. The 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. A church built by the late queen, is the largest and most magnificent edifice erected in Lisbon since the earthquake in 1755. The Portuguese, in some measure, availed themselves of this misfortune, and, like the English after the fire of 1666, turned the temporary evil into a permanent good. All the streets subsequently formed in Lisbon are capacious, regular, and well paved, with convenient foot-paths, as in the streets of London. In point of cleanliness, Lisbon is no longer a subject of so much animadversion to strangers as formerly ; but all is not yet done, as it still wants common sewers, pipe-water, and other conveniences. The population of this city is said to be about 250,000. Its harbour is spacious and secure, and its trade is flourishing and extensive.

The church and monastery of Belem, where the kings of Portugal

are buried, are very magnificent. The chapel of St. Roche is probably one of the finest and richest in the world: the paintings are mosaic work, so curiously wrought with stones of all colors as to astonish the beholders. The pavement is also wrought in mosaic; and the pillars are blocks of jasper, verd antique, Egyptian granite, lapis-lazuli, and alabaster. The doors are of brass, exquisitely wrought and gilt; and the altar is composed of lapis-lazuli and amethyst, round which is a broad gold margin.

At Mafra, 19 miles west from Lisbon, is a spacious and magnificent structure, erected by John V., in consequence of a vow which he made, during a dangerous illness, to found a monastery for the poorest friars in his kingdom. It includes a palace and a church with the conventual foundation, built of white marble. It is entered by a grand flight of steps, leading to a portico, which is decorated with twelve colossal statues of saints. The interior of the church is handsome; the cupola is encrusted with compartments of marble, beautifully carved, and over the numerous altars, instead of pictures, are well executed sculptures in bas-relief. In the monastic part of the building are three hundred cells, the dimensions of which are twenty feet by eighteen. When Napoleon's troops were in possession of Lisbon, they profaned this edifice (as Oliver Cromwell's soldiers did the English cathedrals) by making use of it for barracks. The founder of this gigantic pile also distinguished himself by the erection of a stupendous aqueduct at Alcantara, which collects a number of springs from different heights, and conveys their joint produce for several leagues (in one part over a vale by very lofty arches) to a large reservoir, near the north-western extremity of Lisbon. Near Albujaçota, in Estremadura, is the Dominican monastery of Batalha, so called from that battle which secured the crown to John I. The church is admired for its architectural beauty, for the ornamental elegance of its columns and arches, and the fine proportions of the open or transparent tower. In the same province the Cistercian abbey of Alcobaca was an object of admiration: but, in 1811, it was reduced to a ruinous state by the brutality of the French invaders.

The second city in this kingdom is Oporto, which is well-built and finely situated, but by no means strong. The chief article of commerce in this city is wine. The merchants assemble daily in the chief street, to transact business, and are protected from the sun by sail-cloths hung across from the opposite houses. The town has a romantic appearance, the houses gradually rising, one row above another, on a steep hill, near the mouth of the Douro, which affords a tolerable harbour and a fine quay. Some manufactures, particularly those of linen and hats, are carried on by the citizens. On the southern bank of the river there are two towns, Gaya and Villa-Nova, which are considered as the suburbs of Oporto, and are supposed, with the city itself, to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

Coimbra stands on a mountain near the Mondego, in a district abounding with vines and olive-trees. It is not so populous as its magnitude or importance might induce us to expect; for not more than 15,000 persons reside within its walls or in the suburbs. Braga and Evora have nearly the same number. Elvas is a well-built town, in a mountainous situation, distinguished by its strength and defensibility.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] The Portuguese exchange their wine, salt, and fruit, and most of their own materials, for foreign

manufactures with a variety and are skilful, though the European colonies, and manufactures those European Portuguese foreign islands of Cape in Africa, and

CONSTITUTION other nations after the discovery became as directed the direction of commerce Every man has obedience; in the despot, state. How liberty, have in Portugal, tain knowledge and arbitrary accountable mand," &c.

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manufactures. They make a little linen, and some coarse silk and woollen, with a variety of straw-work; they also make earthen ware and glass, and are skilful in masonry and ship-building. The commerce of Portugal, though seemingly extensive, proves of little solid benefit to her, as the European nations, trading with her, engross the productions of her colonies, and also her native commodities, in exchange for the numerous manufactures, and the vast quantity of corn and salt-fish, supplied by those European nations, and by the North-American states. The Portuguese foreign settlements are, however, of great value. These are the isles of Cape Verd, Madeira, and the Azores, beside extensive territories in Africa, and the remains of oriental conquest.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS.] The Portuguese, like other nations of Gothic descent, had originally a free constitution; but, after the discontinuance of the meetings of the cortes, the government became as despotic as any in Europe. The people had no more share in the direction of public affairs, in the enactment of laws, or in the regulation of commerce, than they had in the government of Russia or China. Every man had no other alternative than to yield a blind and ready obedience, in whatever concerned 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, have trembled at reading the preamble of every new law published in Portugal, which ran thus: "I the king, in virtue of my own certain knowlege, 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, do, in consequence, order and command," &c.

All great preferments, both spiritual and temporal, were disposed of in the council of state, which was composed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the secretary of state. A council of war regulated all military affairs, as the treasury courts did the finances. The council of the palace was the highest tribunal that could receive appeals; but the Casa da Supplicação was a court from which no appeal could be brought.

We speak on this occasion as if the same state of things no longer prevailed. Indeed, Don Pedro has recently (in 1826) granted a new constitution to his people, combining a considerable degree of freedom with monarchical power; and, though it has not yet been brought into operation, it may be expected to produce important changes.

The laws of Portugal are contained in three small volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation. Among the additions made to this groundwork, may be mentioned the code framed at Lamego, in 1145, called the *magna charta* of Portugal. By this code the crime of robbery was not to be punished with death before the fourth offence. Murder is a capital crime in the Portuguese law, as it ought to be deemed in every country: but, when it arises from revenge, the assassin is frequently, to the great disgrace of the government, suffered to escape with impunity. The clergy were formerly amenable only to the canon law; but, by an ordinance of the late queen, they were subjected to the laws which affect the laity.

REVENUES, ARMY, AND NAVY.] The revenues of the crown amount to about three millions and a half sterling. That part which arises from commercial duties, may be termed exorbitant, as these sometimes amount to 25 per cent. With regard to the army and navy, the

former, since the late war, has been on a respectable footing; but the marine is greatly neglected.

ROYAL TITLES.] The king's titles are, king of Portugal and of Algarve, lord of Guinea, and of the conquest, navigation, and commerce, of Ethiopia, Arabia, and Persia. John V. was complimented, by the pope, with the designation of "his most Faithful Majesty."

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The titles and distinctions of the nobility are nearly the same as those of Spain. The orders of knighthood are three; 1. That of *Avis* or *Aviez*, at first instituted by Alfonso Henriquez, king of Portugal, in 1147, as a military and religious order, on account of his taking Evora from the Moors; 2. The *Order of St. James*, instituted in 1310, and endowed with great privileges. The knights profess chastity, hospitality, and obedience; and only those are admitted candidates who can prove the gentility of their blood: their ensign is a red sword, the habit white; 3. The *Order of Christ* was instituted in 1317, to engage the nobility to act with vigor against the Moors. The knights obtained great possessions, and elected their grand master, till the year 1522, when pope Adrian VI. conferred that office on John III. and his successors. These orders have small commanderies and revenues annexed to them.

RELIGION.] Popery is the established religion of Portugal. The Portuguese have a patriarch; but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, except when a quarrel subsisted between the courts of Rome and Lisbon. The power of his holiness in Portugal has been seriously curtailed in modern times; the royal revenues have been increased at the expense of the religious institutions; and the inquisition has been abolished.

The archbishoprics are two, Braga and Evora, and there are ten bishoprics. The patriarch of Lisbon takes precedence of all the clergy in the kingdom, and is a cardinal of the consistory at Rome.

LITERATURE.] The men of learning whom this country has produced are so few that the glaring deficiency is mentioned with indignation, by such of the Portuguese as have the smallest tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have been made by a few, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable state of ignorance. It is universally allowed, that the defect is not occasioned by the want of genius, but of a proper education. The ancestors of the present Portuguese had 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, possessed a true, but neglected, poetical genius. Goes, Barros, and de Faria y Sousa, may be deemed respectable historians; and the poetry of Pereira, Barbosa, and of Ferreira da Lacerda (a female philosopher), may be read without disgust.

UNIVERSITIES.] That of Coimbra, founded in 1291, is amply endowed; and, as it boasts of thirty-nine professors, it may be supposed that some learning may be acquired by a few of the 500 academics who are usually found in this city. The university of Evora, founded in 1559, was a respectable, if not a celebrated seminary; but it has been suppressed as unnecessary. Lisbon has a college of nobles. There is also a military and marine academy, where young gentlemen are educated in the science of engineering and naval tactics.

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Spain, than the Dutch from the German. The Lord's Prayer is as follows:—*Padre nosso, que estas nos ceos, santificado seio o tu nome; venha a nos tuo reyno, seia feita a tua vontade, assi nos ceos, como na terra. O pao nosso de codidia, dano lo nos neste dia; e perdoa nos as nossas devidas, assi como nos perdoamos a os nossos devedores; e nao nos dexes cahir om tentação, mas libra nos do mal. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.] The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almost entire, and deservedly admired. The walls of Santarem are likewise said to be of Roman origin. At Evora are the ruins of a temple of Diana, and an aqueduct ascribed to Sertorius. Near Braga are the remains of a temple supposed to have been dedicated to *Esculapius*. At Chaves have been discovered 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 Moorish castles, particularly at Torres-Vedras.

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, when the latter were unable to secure or retain it, it was successively in subjection to the Suevi, Alans, and Visi-Goths. It was conquered by the Moors, soon after their triumph over Roderic, king of Spain, and remained for some ages in their possession: but, in the eleventh century, several towns and districts were rescued from their yoke by the valor of the Christian warriors of Leon and Castile; and Alfonso VI. rewarded Henry, a descendant of Robert king of France, for his bravery and assistance against the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal which was then in the hands of the Christians.

Henry was succeeded, in 1128, by his son Alfonso Henry, who gained a decisive victory over five Moorish kings in July, 1139. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal; for Alfonso was then proclaimed king by his soldiers. He did not, however, before the year 1147, gain possession of the city of Lisbon, which was then a flourishing town, and so well fortified, as to sustain a siege for five months. He lived to the age of seventy-six, and, after a reign of fifty-seven years, of which few particulars are authentically recorded, left the throne, in 1185, to his son Sancho, who augmented his territories by the expulsion of the infidels from various districts.

Alfonso II., who began to reign in 1211, obtained some advantages over the Moorish princes of Seville and Cordova; and Sancho II., his successor, also extended the limits of the realm; but it is said that he was expelled from his dominions for cowardice. The next sovereign was Alfonso III., who conquered the kingdom of Algarve. Dionysius, called by the Portuguese Don Diniz, succeeded his father in 1279, and reigned with reputation above forty-five years. He tempered justice with mercy; encouraged and rewarded merit of every kind; and, for his beneficent and wise government, was honored with the title of Father of his country. He instituted some respectable military orders, erected and fortified a number of towns, and founded the university of Coimbra. The character of Alfonso IV. was less estimable; but he was successful in some military enterprises both against the Castilians and the Moors.

Peter, who mounted the throne in 1357, distinguished himself by his regard for justice. Like Titus, he considered every day as lost in which he had not performed some act of duty, of prudence, or beneficence. It is said, that he prohibited the employment of advocates in his courts of

judicature, being aware of the effect of artful eloquence in promoting the escape of the guilty, or the condemnation of the innocent, and in procuring erroneous decisions of civil causes. Ferreira Lobo says, that he ruled with inflexible justice, and granted innumerable favors to his deserving subjects. His son Ferdinand improved the police of Lisbon and other cities; but he is represented as a votary of pleasure and dissipation. After his death, his illegitimate brother John obtained the crown, in 1385, by his spirited efforts; and the Portuguese still celebrate, on the 14th of August, the triumph of this prince at Aljubarota, over his Castilian competitor.

During a long reign, John so fully established his character for policy and patriotism, that he was styled the father of his country. His military enterprises were not numerous; but his courage was unquestioned; and he evinced it in an expedition to Ceuta, which he annexed to his dominions. His son Henry was an astronomer and navigator, and distinguished himself by his zeal for maritime discovery and colonization. The reign of Edward, called by the Portuguese don Duarte, was short and inglorious.

Alfonso V. was honored with the epithet of the African, for his exploits against the Moors, from whom he took Tangier, Arzila, and other maritime towns. The coast of Guinea was also discovered under his auspices; and, under the sway of John II., Congo was visited, and the Cape of Good-Hope was reached, but not doubled before the reign of Emmanuel, styled the Great, who, by encouraging the adventurous spirit of his people, greatly promoted their commercial opulence and colonial power. His fleets opened a way to the Indian ocean; and, in the west, Brazil was introduced to the knowledge of Europeans. John III. succeeded in 1521; and, while he lost some of his African settlements, made new acquisitions in India. 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, in 1526, in defiance of 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 Lucco, he was defeated, and either slain or drowned. Henry, a cardinal, the son of Emmanuel, succeeded, but died without issue, in 1580: on which Antony, prior of Crato, was chosen king, by the states of the kingdom; but Philip II. of Spain, pretending that the crown belonged to him, because his mother was the eldest daughter of Emmanuel, sent the duke of Alva, with a powerful force, who subdued the country, and proclaimed his master king of Portugal.

The viceroys under Philip and his two successors behaved toward the Portuguese with great rapacity and violence. The Spanish ministers treated them as vassals, and, by multiplied acts of oppression and tyranny, so excited the hatred and courage of the Portuguese, as to produce a revolt at Lisbon. The people obliged John, duke of Braganza, the legitimate heir to the crown, to accept it; and he acceded to the throne in 1640, 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 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.

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revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and, on the restoration of Charles II., that monarch, having married a princess of Portugal, influenced the Spanish court to resign all pretensions to that kingdom. Alfonso VI., 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 Alfonso to resign his crown, on the charges of incapacity and misconduct, but obtained a dispensation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually consummated. They had only a daughter; but Peter, by a second marriage, had sons, the eldest of whom was John, his successor. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them contributed much to the humiliation of the power of France. On the contrary, John greatly injured the allies, by occasioning the loss of the battle of Almanza, in 1707. He died in 1750, and was succeeded by his son Joseph, whose reign was neither happy to himself, nor fortunate for his people. A dreadful earthquake, in 1755, overwhelmed a great part of his capital, and shook his kingdom to the centre. His succeeding administration was not distinguished by the affection that it acquired at home, or by the reputation which it sustained abroad. It was deeply stained with domestic blood, and rendered odious by horrible cruelty. In September, 1758, the king was attacked by assassins, and narrowly escaped with his life, in a solitary place near his country mansion at Belem. The families of Aveiro and Tavora were destroyed by torture, under the charge of having conspired against his life; but they were condemned without proper evidence, and their innocence has since been manifested. From this supposed conspiracy is dated the expulsion of the Jesuits (who were conjectured to have been privy to the plot) from all parts of the Portuguese dominions. The marquis de Pombal, who was at this time prime minister, governed the kingdom for many years with that unbounded authority which was sometimes directed to the most arbitrary and inhuman purposes.

In 1762, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards and their allies, the French, attempted to force the king of Portugal into their alliance, and offered to garrison his maritime towns against the English. He 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 these courts were in earnest on 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 British 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.

As Joseph had no son, his eldest daughter Maria was married, by a dispensation from the pope, to don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown from devolving to a foreign family. She ascended the throne in 1777; and an early act of her reign was the removal of the marquis de Pombal from power; an event which excited general joy, as might naturally be expected from the oppressive nature of his administration; though it has been alleged in his favor, that he adopted various

public measures which were calculated to promote the real interest of Portugal.

While the queen had the full and perfect use of that limited understanding which she derived from nature and education, she was unacquainted with the art of good government. Being very weak and superstitious, she at length declined, from an excess of piety, to a state of derangement; and, in 1792, the prince of Brazil, 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 act as regent till the return of her health.

Portugal, as the ally of England, professed herself the enemy of revolutionary France; but she merely furnished Spain with a few auxiliary troops, and sent a small squadron to join the British fleet. After Spain had made peace with France, a war took place between the former country and Portugal, without producing any important events. In August 1797, a negotiation commenced between France and Portugal, and a treaty was actually concluded; but the French directory refused to ratify it, alleging that the queen, far from showing a disposition to adhere to 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 ineffective. Peace was restored, in 1801, on the cession of Olivenza to Spain, and the grant of territorial advantages in Guiana to the French.

When the war was renewed, in 1803, between Great-Britain and France, it was natural to suppose that the weakness of Portugal would invite encroachment and encourage insult. The first exercise of irregular influence on the part of France, was the arrogant demand of a certain sum, as the price of neutrality; and, while the regent was thus degraded into a tributary prince, the French ambassador at Lisbon arbitrarily interfered in the government. To this insolence the prince tamely submitted; but his acquiescence did not, after the peace of Tilsit, secure the realm against the menaces of hostility. Bonaparté then became more imperious and peremptory in his demands, and required that Portugal should join the confederacy of the continental powers against England. The Portuguese government so far complied as to order the ports of the kingdom to be closed against the ships of war and mercantile vessels of Great-Britain; but, knowing how much was to be feared from that power, and how little confidence was to be placed in any peace or favor obtained by submission to the tyrant, the court, after much hesitation, resolved to emigrate to Brazil, and remove thither the seat of government. Accordingly, in November 1807, the whole of the royal family of Braganza, and a considerable number of persons of distinction, sailed from the Tagus in a fleet of eight sail of the line, four frigates, and several other vessels of war, beside a number of Brazilian ships, conveying together about 18,000 Portuguese subjects. They arrived in South-America without any adverse accident.

After the departure of the royal family, the French took possession of the capital, and general Junot assumed the administration. But, when the affairs of Spain encouraged a hope that an effectual resistance might be made to French usurpation, the British court, in 1808, sent an army which, after having defeated the French in the battle of Vimero, obliged them to evacuate Portugal, by the convention of Cintra. Being thus rescued from disgraceful tyranny, the Portuguese remained in peace till the spring of the following year, when a French army entered the kingdom from Spain, and gained possession of Oporto. Sir Arthur

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Wellesley did not suffer the invaders long to exult in their conquest. He crossed the Douro in the face of the enemy, who, not daring to contend with him in a general action, retreated with precipitation to the frontiers, after many acts of rapine, murder, and conflagration. This disappointment only served to stimulate the French to a new attempt, which, they hoped, would be more successful, from the activity, courage, skill, and experience of Massena. That commander, having reduced Almeida by the effect of a sudden explosion, was prosecuting his success with alacrity, when he was met at Busaco, in September 1810, by a British and Portuguese army. He attacked the elevated position which the allies had taken, and some of his intrepid battalions had nearly attained the summit, when they were driven down by a furious charge with the bayonet, suffering great loss in their retreat. Notwithstanding this success, lord Wellington thought it expedient to avoid another conflict, as his force was considerably inferior to that of the French. He retired to Torres-Vedras, and, profiting by the mountainous nature of the country, formed such lines for the defence of his army and of Lisbon, as no prudent general would venture to assault. After five months of mutual observation, Massena quitted his cantonments in the ensuing spring, and marched into Spain, wreaking his sanguinary vengeance upon the wretched natives, and destroying their habitations, in that progress which was accelerated by hostile pursuit.

Gratitude is a rare virtue in courts; but the prince regent of Portugal was so pleased at the zeal and success of his British auxiliaries, that he gratified their countrymen with peculiar advantages in the trade with Brazil, and even promised, at the desire of our court, to suppress the inquisition in that province, and to modify, if not abolish, the unnatural traffic for slaves on the coast of Africa. From that time Portugal remained without serious molestation; but the restoration of tranquillity to that realm did not encourage the prince to quit his more secure station at Rio de Janeiro. He was content with the conduct of the executive council which he had left at Lisbon; and, even when a general peace was concluded, he suffered an ancient kingdom to be reduced in effect to a state of provincial subserviency.

When the affairs of Portugal were taken into consideration by the congress of Vienna, it was agreed that the regent of that kingdom should manifest his regard for the French monarch, by restoring French Guiana, or Cayenne (which the English and Portuguese had taken in 1809), as far as the river Oyapoke, the mouth of which is situated between the fourth and fifth degrees of northern latitude. After the deliverance of Europe had been fully effected, the royal family remained in South-America. The queen dying on the 20th of March, 1816, the regent assumed the crown of Portugal with the usual formality, under the designation of John VI.: he also styled himself king of Brazil, and continued at Rio de Janeiro, until the general wish of the Portuguese recalled him, in 1821, to Europe. A revolution had occurred in his absence, (in August, 1820), in imitation of that military revolt which had arisen in Spain, and a constitution was prepared by the cortes for the regeneration of the ill-governed realm: but, in 1823, the king, by the intrigues and exertions of his numerous partisans, recovered his full sway, which he retained to the day of his death, except for a short interval, when his factious queen and her party held him in bondage. He died at Lisbon in the 59th year of his age, on the 10th of March, 1826. He was a man of narrow intellects, but of a good disposition. As don Pedro, the elder of his sons, then exercised the imperial functions in Brazil,

which, in 1822, had shaken off the yoke of the parent state, the princess Maria Theresa assumed the regency until the succession should be fully settled. Pedro, having no wish to enjoy both crowns, resigned that of Portugal, and condescended to grant a constitutional charter to the people of that realm, neither too monarchical nor too democratic, but following a middle course (as he said) "between those extreme principles which agitated the world." He proposed that his daughter should be queen, and give her hand to her uncle don Miguel: but these two points are not yet decisively adjusted, and his sister is still regent.

Pedro III. (the lawful king) was born on the 12th of October, 1798, and married, in 1817, to the archduchess Leopoldina. His brother Miguel was born in 1802; and there are four sisters.

ITALY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.	
Length	650	between	37 and 46.20 North latitude.
Breadth	280		6 and 13 East longitude.

Containing, if we include Savoy and the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, 90,000 square miles, with almost 190 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 some degree of probability, that it is the same with *Aetolia*, as it received a colony of Greeks from that country.

BOUNDARIES.] Italy is bounded on the north by Switzerland and Germany, on the east by the Adriatic Sea, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the north-west by France.

DIVISIONS.] Italy comprehends the following kingdoms and states:

	Population.
Northern Division	The Lombardo-Venetian kingdom 4,350,000
	The principality of Piedmont, and the duchies of Savoy and Genoa } 2,750,000
	Modena and its dependencies 350,000
	Parma and Placentia 335,000
Middle Division	The duchy of Lucca 120,000
	The grand duchy of Tuscany 1,300,000
	The ecclesiastical state 1,300,000
Southern Division	The kingdom of Naples 4,700,000
Islands	Corsica 180,000
	Sardinia 415,000
	Sicily 1,200,000
	Total

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The beautiful prospects and scenery of Italy are themes of general admiration. In some parts, indeed, there

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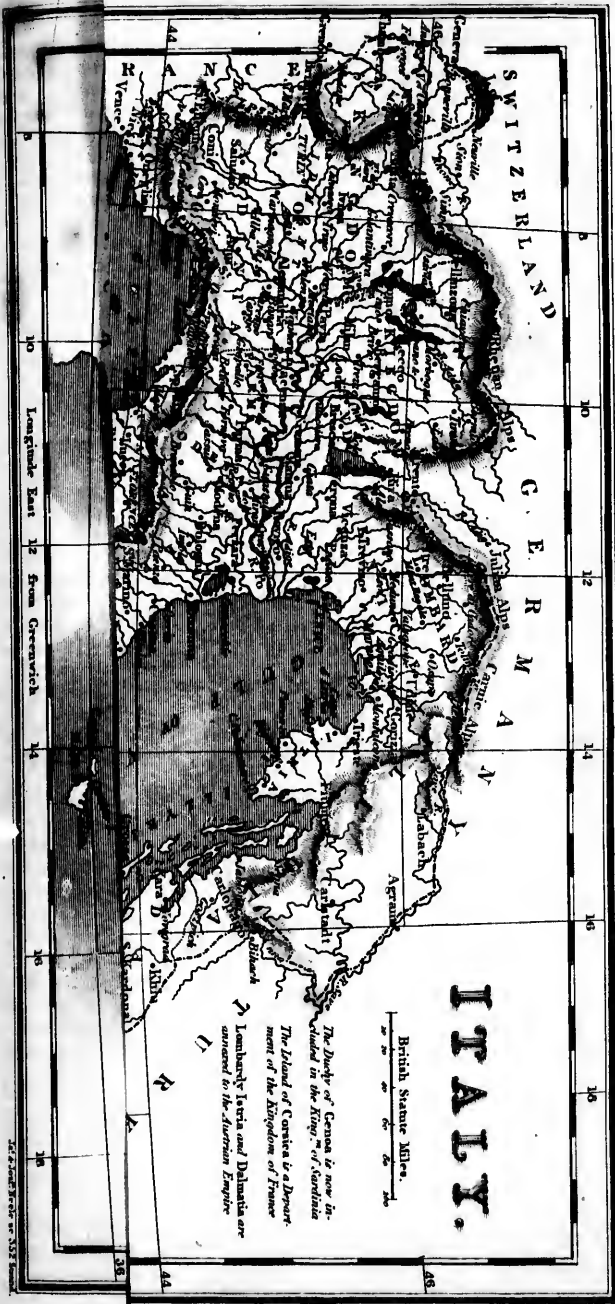
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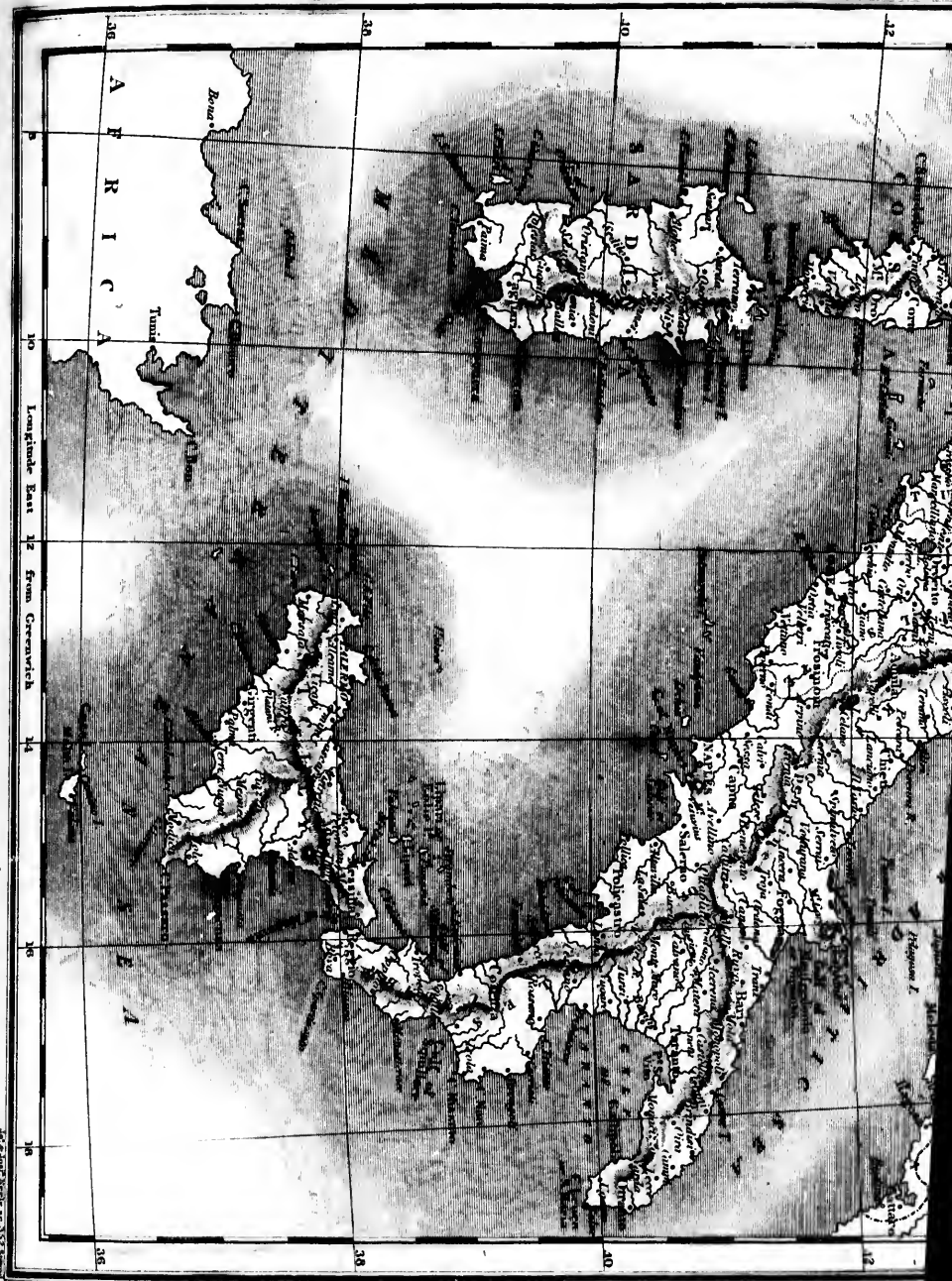
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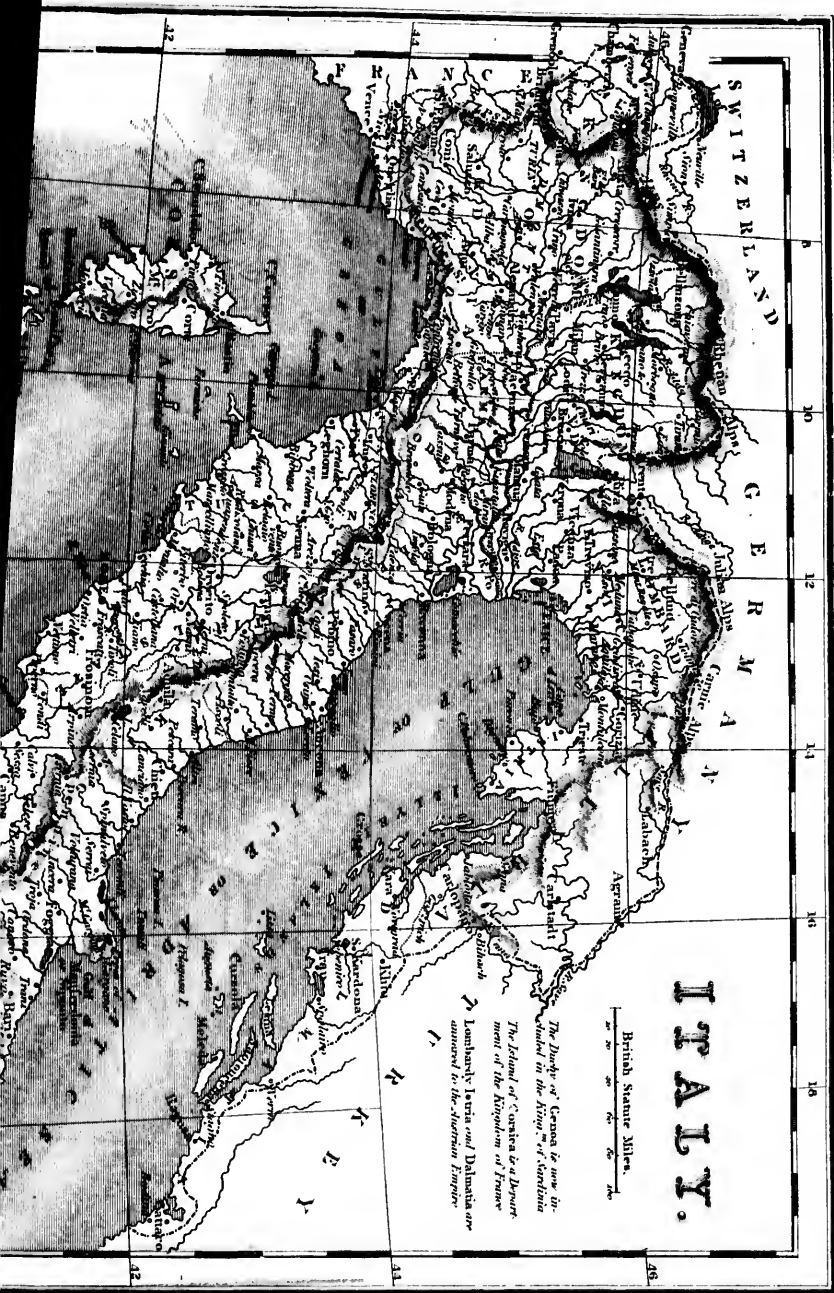
British Statute Miles.

The Duchy of Geneva is now included in the Kingdom of Savoy.
The Island of Corsica is a Department of the Kingdom of France.
Lombardy, Venetia and Dalmatia are annexed to the Austrian Empire.



London: Published by J. Neumann, Neudamm, 1854.

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ITALY.

British Steam Miles.

The Duke of Parma is now included in the Kingdom of Sardinia.
 Lombardy, Venetia and Dalmatia are annexed to the Austrian Empire.

are extensive plain appearance, and in the air unwholesome rich groves of olive mingled with corn mulberry-trees, while transparent the valleys, exhibit and forming the

MOUNTAINS.
of France, Switzerland along the coast Italy, generally Mediterranean.

one in the territory of the Salso, Volturno, the Tiber,—the highest—Mount Garbo—markable for the exceeding 7870

The volcanoes in the vicinity of Naples reserve the description

LAKES, RIVERS.
in Italy, are the most about 27 miles in length and eight broad; and

The principal in Mount Viso and, after a course Not far from the sea, after flowing Veronese. They into the sea of through that city

Mineral springs.
Baia, near Naples are medicinal the Cheltenham

METALS, MINERALS.
emeralds, jasper. In Savoy and silver are produce copper-papal territories of view: but ploration. But that of Carrara the rest.

CLIMATE.
some parts of which accide di Roma, which is now almost

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, enclosed by rows of tall poplars, elms, and mulberry-trees, which support the luxuriant branches of the vine; while transparent streams flow down 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 to the Mediterranean. Connected with the Apennine chain are four groupes,—one in the territory of Sienna,—another to the southward of the valleys of the Salso, Velino, and Nera, and to the eastward of that of the Tiber,—the highlands in the district where Mount Vesuvius is situated, —and Mount Gargano on the eastern coast. The Apennines are not remarkable for their elevation, the highest point (Monte Velino) not exceeding 7870 feet above the sea.

The volcanoes of Vesuvius and *Ætna* are situated, the former in the vicinity of Naples, and the latter in the island of Sicily; but we shall reserve this 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 Locarno, about 27 miles in length and three in breadth; that of Como, 32 miles in length and two and a half in breadth; Garda, 30 miles long and eight broad; and the lakes of Lugano, Perugia, Terni, and Celano.

The principal rivers are the Po, Adige, Tiber, and Arno. The Po rises in Mount Viso on the Piedmontese frontier, crosses the north of Italy, and, after a course of 300 miles, joins the Adriatic sea by four channels. Not far from one of the mouths of that river, the Adige enters the same sea, after flowing from the Grison territory through the Tyrol and the Veronese. 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 abound in mines that produce emeralds, jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, and other valuable stones. In Savoy and Piedmont are mines of iron and copper, and even gold and silver are found in the principality. Parma and Tuscany also produce copper, lead, and iron. The kingdom of Naples and the papal territories are not particularly rich in a mineralogical point of view: but the supposed deficiency may only arise from want of exploration. Beautiful marble is one of the chief productions of Italy: that of Carrara and of the Siennese may be considered as superior to the rest.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The climate of Italy is various, and some parts of the country exhibit melancholy proofs of the alterations which accidental causes make on the face of nature; for the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the most salubrious air, is now almost pestilential, through the decrease of inhabitants, which

has occasioned a stagnation of waters and putrid exhalations; for the task of draining, undertaken by Pius VI., proved only a partial and very imperfect remedy. 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 have also a great effect on the 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, except the enervating warm wind called the *sirocco*. In general, the air of Italy may be said to be dry and pure.

Speaking of the climate, Mr. Eustace observes, that "the principal and almost the only inconveniences arise from the equinoctial rains and the summer heats. The influence of both is felt all over Italy. That of the former is particularly inconvenient, and even sometimes dangerous, especially in the northern provinces and along the eastern coast." The rivers, he adds, when swelled with continued rains, overflow their banks; and these inundations do not always subside so soon as might be expected from the general heat and dryness of the climate: "their pernicious effects are sometimes felt for months afterward." We are sorry to observe, that this ingenious and worthy man fell a victim to that climate which he thus describes.

The happy soil of Italy liberally produces the comforts and luxuries of life: each district has its peculiar excellency and commodity; wine, the most delicious fruit, and oil, are the most general productions. As much corn grows here as serves the inhabitants; and, if the ground should be properly cultivated, the Italians might export all sorts of grain in abundance. 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 intervening spaces sown with corn. Hemp and flax are likewise produced in great plenty: rice, sugar, tobacco, and saffron, are also among the objects of culture. Wool of a good quality is obtained in some provinces; but sheep are not bred in such numbers as to render the importation of that commodity unnecessary. Great attention is paid in many parts to the breeding of horses, asses, mules, horned cattle, and swine; yet greater industry might be exerted in those useful departments of rural economy, without seriously encroaching on the time or the indolence of the people.

ANIMALS.] There is little difference between the animals of Italy, and those of France and Germany already mentioned: but it has been remarked, that the European buffalo is almost peculiar to Italy.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among the natural curiosities of Italy, the most conspicuous are its volcanoes. Mount Vesuvius is about seven miles distant from the city of Naples. The declivity of this mountain toward the sea, is planted with vines and fruit-trees, and it is equally fertile near 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. Its height has been computed to be 3,900 feet above 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 an eye-witness of the tremendous scene. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were small and moderate; then, however, it broke out with accu-

culated fury, and was a great error. The matter was thro' of twenty-five a river for three In 1707, such was dark at Nap reckoned to be ashes, or rather the people in the other expedient houses and bal sea, fifteen less astonishment of in 1779, which in the Philosopho ravaged a coun tations. In 18 the ground occ

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inculcated fury, and desolated the country for many miles. In 1694 there was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with such force, that some of it fell at the distance of twenty-five miles, and a vast quantity of liquid lava ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, such quantities of cinders and ashes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon. In 1767, a violent eruption occurred, which is reckoned to be the 27th from that of the year 79. On this occasion, 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 balconies were covered with these effusions; and ships at sea, fifteen leagues from Naples, were covered with them, to the great astonishment of the sailors. An eruption happened also in 1766, another in 1779, which have been particularly described by sir William Hamilton in the Philosophical Transactions; and another in June 1794, which ravaged a considerable tract, and destroyed a great number of habitations. In 1804 there was also an eruption, and another in 1805, when the ground occupied by the lava was actually on fire.

It has been observed, 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 fire, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country, and to the profusion of fruit and herbage with which it is covered. Besides, it is supposed that while open and active the mountain is less hostile to Naples, than it would be, if its eruptions should cease, and its struggles be confined to its own bowels; for then might ensue the most fatal shocks to the unstable foundation of the whole 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; in the middle are woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper part is almost for the whole year covered with snow. Its fiery eruptions have 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, particularly one which destroyed Catania in 1693, and another in 1755. In 1811, several new mouths, opening on the eastern side, discharged, with the greatest force, torrents of burning matter. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption.

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 Cane is remarkable for its poisonous steams, and is so called from its killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there.

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 Chamouni, and are separated by wild forests, corn-fields, and rich meadows; so that immense tracts of ice are blended with the highest cultivation, exhibiting striking vicissitudes and all the force of contrast. All these valleys of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are some leagues in length, unite at the foot of Mont Blanc, the

highest mountain in Europe. According to the calculations of M. de Luc, the height of this mountain above the level of the sea is 2391 French toises or 15,300 English feet. The highest part of this remarkable mountain is in the form of a compressed hemisphere: from that point it sinks gradually, and exhibits a kind of concave surface of snow, in the midst of which is a small pyramid of ice: it then rises into a second hemisphere, and thence descends into another concave surface, terminating in a point. The first person who reached the summit was Dr. Pacard. He ascended, in 1786, with the aid of one Balma, who, in searching for crystals, had discovered the only practicable route. They were employed about fifteen hours in reaching the "giddy height," and only five hours in descending. The snow and wind rendered them, for a time, almost blind; their faces were excoriated, and their lips swollen. A more philosophical observer was M. de Saussure, who found that, of all the organs, that of respiration was the most affected by the ascent. Having marched over turf or on the solid rock, he and his attendants passed the first night in tents on the top of La Côte, a mountain which is about 5440 feet above the sea. The rest of their adventurous journey was over ice or hardened snow. The next morning, they traversed a glacier which was intersected by wide and deep chasms, some of which could only be passed by bridges of snow; and thus they reached the foot of a small chain of rocks, enclosed in the snows of the principal mountain. In the afternoon they reached what may be called the second stage, and encamped for the night at the height of 12,760 feet above the sea. On this resting-place there was no appearance of vegetation, and nothing but snow of a dazzling whiteness could be seen around, while the sky was exceedingly dark. On the ensuing morn, occasionally cutting places for their feet with hatchets, they proceeded to the utmost elevation. The air was so rarefied as they approached the summit, that they were obliged to stop almost continually for the purpose of taking breath; and the dryness of the atmosphere, which contained only a sixth portion of the humidity of the air of Geneva, harassed them with a burning thirst.

A rival of Mont Blanc is the mountain Rosa, which was long supposed to be higher than the former; but, according to some late trigonometrical observations, the latter is about 575 feet lower.

A late tourist (Mr. Bakewell) says, "The most striking object in the valley of Chamouni, next to the glaciers, and more deserving of the labor of a journey than Mont Blanc, is the Aiguille de Dru, a spire of granite, which shoots up to the height of 11,000 feet above the level of the sea, and is apparently detached from all the surrounding mountains. The upper part is utterly inaccessible; its sides are rounded, and are said to have a polish or glazing like that which is sometimes seen on granite rocks exposed to the action of the sea. I have neither seen nor have I heard of any pinnacle of granite in the Alps that can be compared with it for the elegance of its form or the length of its shaft."

The cascade of Terni is the finest object of the kind that Italy can exhibit. 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 vapor. 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 750 feet. Near Tivoli is a small but beautiful cascade, the river Teverone (the ancient Anio) falling about 50 feet.

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NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] 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 many of them are very handsome; and they are as amorous as those of Spain. The marriage ties, especially of the higher class, 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 is an exaggerated statement, as it cannot be supposed that the generality of husbands are so regardless of their honor, as tamely to acquiesce in the abominable criminality to which the full extent of this practice would lead.

Although the characters of the nations of Italy exhibit various appearances, they agree in some respects. Sobriety and temperance may be considered as pervading all the communities, and appearing in every class of society. The people are rather vindictive than brave, and more superstitious than devout. The middling ranks were long attached to their native customs, and seemed to have few ideas of improvement; but that disinclination to change or reform is now declining. With exterior courtesy, a supercilious pride is sometimes mingled; for, 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 seem to look upon the rest of mankind with contempt.

The people of Lombardy appear to be the most respectable of all the Italian nations (except perhaps the Savoyards), in morals, benevolence, and good-nature; and the Tuscans, for goodness of character, seem to claim the next place. The Piedmontese are considered as the Gascons of Italy. Among the Neapolitans and Sicilians, a thirst of revenge is more prevalent than in the other Italian states: but we are pleased to find, that the shameful laxity of the police, which suffered so many assassinations to be committed with impunity, is gradually yielding to a conviction of the necessity of repressing such outrages by all the energy of law.—The Genoese are a calculating race, and the generous feelings which ought to influence every community, are repressed among them by sordid selfishness. Their marriages are regulated by motives of interest, and are usually settled by the parents or relatives without the least regard to the inclinations of the young persons. Their women (says M. Vieusseux) “are among the handsomest of Italy. They have, in general, elegant figures, delicate complexions, dark hair and eyes, and pretty features; and their deportment is remarkably graceful.” Persons of the higher class at Rome are less refined and intellectual, and less upright than those of Florence or Milan; and the people of the ecclesiastical state are in general indolent and ignorant, and evince, by low cunning and a want of manly spirit, the debasing effects of arbitrary misrule.

RELIGION.] The religion of Italy is the Roman-catholic. It is pretended that St. Peter was the founder of the Romish church, and that he gave it pre-eminence and authority over every other Christian establishment: but this assertion is strongly controverted and peremptorily denied by protestants. However that may be, it appears that the bishops of Rome began, at an early period, to claim spiritual supremacy, and gradually secured the acquiescence of many nations in the validity of their pretensions. A pompous establishment, inconsistent with the simplicity of religion, was at length formed in the imperial city; and

temporal power was added to spiritual dignity. Beside the pope, seventy cardinals are allowed; but that number is seldom complete: they are appointed by his holiness, who, in promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalship, attends to the nomination of the princes who profess that religion. His chief minister is the cardinal patron, generally his near relative, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amassing all the wealth that he can procure. The cardinals, when they meet in a consistory, pretend to control the pontiff in matters both spiritual and temporal, and have been sometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is seldom of long duration, as those who are elected are generally old men. 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 animosity rose to such a height, that they made a violent use of their hands and feet, and threw the ink-stands at each other.

We will 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 agree, he thus proceeds:

"I most firmly admit and embrace the apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions; and all other constitutions of the church of Rome.

"I admit the Holy Scriptures in the same sense that the 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 profess and believe that there are seven sacraments of the law, 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 confer grace; and that of these, baptism, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without sacrilege. I also receive and admit the approved rites of the catholic church in her solemn administration of the above-mentioned sacraments.

"I embrace and receive every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent concerning original sin and justification.

"I also profess that in the mass there is offered to God a true, proper, and propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the most holy sacrament of the eucharist the body and blood, the soul and divinity, of our Lord Jesus Christ, are really and substantially present, 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 are taken and received.

"I firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the souls kept prisoners there receive help by the suffrages of the faithful.

"I likewise believe that the saints reigning with Christ are to be worshipped and prayed to; and that they offer up prayers to God for us, and that their reliques are to be had in veneration.

"I 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 honor and veneration ought to be given to them.

"I likewise to the church people.

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"I likewise affirm, that the power of indulgences was left by Christ to the church, and that their use is very beneficial to Christian people.

"I acknowledge the holy catholic and apostolical Roman church to be the mother and mistress of all churches; and I 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 undoubtedly receive and profess all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared, by the sacred canons and oecumenical 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 likewise condemn, reject, and anathematise."

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS.] In the Introduction, we have particularised some of the great men whom ancient Italy produced. In modern times, that is, since the revival of learning, some Italians have excelled in controversial literature; 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. Guicciardiui, Bentivoglio, and Davila, have been much commended as historians. Machiavel is equally famous as an historian and a political writer. His comedies have great merit: and the liberality of his sentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. Among the prose writers in the Italian language, Boccaccio 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. Petrarca, 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 more than a thousand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent: but Alfieri was a masterly tragedian, and Metastasio acquired a great reputation by writing dramatic pieces set to music. Sannazarius, Fracastorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, distinguished themselves by the elegance, correctness, and spirit, of their Latin poetry, many of their compositions scarcely yielding to the classics themselves. Socinus, distinguished by his opposition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, sculptors, and architects, are unrivaled, not only in their number, but in their excellence. The revival of learning, after the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, revived taste likewise, and gave mankind a relish for truth and beauty in design and coloring: but Cimabue, long before that æra, obtained by his talents the honorable appellation of the Father of the first age of modern painting. Leonardo da Vinci so far improved upon existing models, as to excite the astonishment of succeeding artists. Raffaele, from his own ideas, assisted by the ancients, struck out a new creation with his pencil, and still stands at the head of the art of painting. Michael Angelo Buonaroti united in his own person painting, sculpture, and architecture. The coloring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equaled, and some of his portraits are finely expressive. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, excelled in architecture and sculpture. Julio Romano, as a painter, was great in design, but deficient in accuracy and grace. Cor-

reggio delineated pious virgins and holy infants with fascinating elegance; Guido's heads are regarded as nearly equal to those of Raffaele; Ludovico Carracci shone both in design and in coloring; and Bassano gave admired representations of landscapes and of animal life. At a later period, Canova bore away the palm in sculpture.

In music, considered both as an art and science, the Italians have long distinguished themselves. Corelli, Paesiello, Cimarosa, and others, extended their fame over Europe; and Rossini has many admirers, though he is inferior to some German composers in force and originality.

UNIVERSITIES.] Those of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Pisa, Naples, Salerno, and Perusia. Some of these are in a state of languor and depression: those of Milan and Pavia are said to be the most flourishing.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its smoothness, and the facility with which it enters into musical composition. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is easily acquired by a good classical scholar. The Tuscan style is most in request.

The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Padre nostro, che sei nel cielo, sia santificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volontà sia fatta siccome in cielo così anche in terra: daci oggi il nostro pane cotidiano; e remettici i nostri debiti, siccome noi ancora rimettiamo à nostri debitori; e non inducici in tentazione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perciocché tu e il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria, in sempiterno.*

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 and other ornaments; and, with infinite pains and labor, took away what was practicable of the beautiful casing of marble, which he employed in building a palace for his family.

The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the consul Flaminius, is in a fine state of preservation. The circumference, forming the ornamental part, executed in the Tuscan style, was destroyed long ago: but there remain forty-five rows of steps, or ranges of seats, carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble. Twenty-two thousand persons may be seated here, if we allow one foot and a half for each person. This amphitheatre has been occasionally repaired at the expense of the inhabitants; and they sometimes 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 converted into

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a modern church, and which, from its circular figure, is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple 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 encrusted with marble. The roof is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no window, 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 toward the centre, where the rain-water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain. 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 a basin of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with historic sculpture, are still remaining. A traveler forgets the devastations of the northern barbarians, when he sees the rostrated column erected by Duilius in commemoration of the first naval victory with the Romans obtained 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 unhurt to the present times; not to mention medals, and the infinite variety of seals and engraven 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, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the first 200 miles, the second 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places still entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs, bridges, and the like, present themselves 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.

The curiosities of Herculaneum excite the attention of every classical antiquary. That city, situated between Naples and Mount Vesuvius, was, in the reign of Nero, almost destroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the first year of the reign of Titus, overwhelmed by a stream of lava. 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 form a close and heavy mass. In the revolution of so many ages, the spot upon which the town stood was forgotten; but, in the year 1713, on digging into these parts, some remains of the city were discovered, and many antiquities were taken out. The search was afterwards discontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig to the depth of eighty feet. Not only the city then made its appearance, but also

the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was disclosed, and the whole of the theatre was uncovered. In the temple was found a statue of gold; and, in the theatre, the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze appeared, 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, multitudes of statues, busts, pillars, paintings, manuscripts, furniture, and various utensils, most of which are deposited in the museum of the palace at Portici. 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 marble, and some with bricks three feet long and six inches thick.

The town of Pompeii was destroyed by the same eruption which overwhelmed Herculaneum; and its ruins were discovered by means of a hoe, striking against a statue of Minerva, which adorned the roof of a temple. The houses in general consisted only of a ground-floor with neat rooms, many of which had floors of Mosaic, and walls elegantly painted, with windows opening into a square court. One house appeared to have belonged to a statuary, as it was full of the vestiges of his art; another, by displaying chirurgical instruments, pointed out the profession of its last occupant; another was a sort of tavern. Suitable accommodations for hot and cold baths were discovered. A rectangular building was found with a colonnade toward the court, in the style of the Royal Exchange at London, but smaller. At a considerable distance from this are the remains of a temple consecrated to Isis, the Doric columns of which are of brick, stuccoed. Two theatres have also been partly preserved, and they were seemingly well adapted both for seeing and hearing. The ruins of a spacious and well-constructed amphitheatre are likewise visible. The high street had a raised pavement for foot-passengers, and the middle was formed in some places of lava, and in others of marble. Few skeletons were found in the streets, but a considerable number in the houses.

CHIEF TOWNS, GOVERNMENT, &c.] Milan, the capital of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, is one of the most flourishing cities in Italy. Its immediate fortifications are insignificant; but the citadel is a place of great strength. The handsome buildings are too numerous to be particularised in this sketch. The cathedral is stately and splendid; but, though its foundations were laid in the year 1386, it was not completed before the time of Bonaparté, who, when he first arrived in this part of Italy, viewed it with admiration and delight. The Jesuits' college was applied, in 1766, to the use of an university which Maria Theresa then endowed. There are many other institutions connected with the important object of education, and some well-conducted establishments for the relief of the poor. Not only the admirers of the fine arts have the benefit of an academy, but there is one also for the promotion of agriculture and the mechanic arts. The trade of the town is considerable, and manufactures are numerous, among which those of silk and velvet are particularly worthy of notice. The population is about 135,000.

When the Milanese territory was under the government of its own dukes, it gave law to the other states of Italy; and, when it was transferred to the Austrians, it was considered, even under its degradation, as a very important province. It was supposed to be capable of raising an army of 30,000 men, who formed better soldiers than the southern Italians: yet its revenue did not far exceed 350,000 pounds sterling, including the produce of the Mantuan duchy. When it composed the

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principal part of Napoleon's kingdom of Italy, he probably rendered it more productive. He gave it the form of a representative government; but his arbitrary influence predominated over all external appearances. The new realm is governed for the emperor by a prince of his family, without those checks which every country ought to have upon its rulers; yet the administration is represented as mild and paternal.

VENICE, now a part of the kingdom of Lombardy, was one of the most celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its constitution and former power. As to the constitution of the late republic, it was originally democratic (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 so grossly abused, that some of them were assassinated by the people. By degrees, a body of hereditary nobility was formed; progressive encroachments were made on national rights; and a complete aristocracy was at length established upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobles 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 in a peculiar manner by ballot, which was managed by gold and silver balls. He was invested with great state, and with emblems of supreme authority, but had very little power, and was not even 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, to foreign ambassadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and the military commanders. 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 seising 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 any appeal, on the life of every citizen belonging to the Venetian state; the highest of the nobility, even the doge himself, not being excepted. These Inquisitors were allowed to employ spies, to act upon secret intelligence, to issue orders for the seizure of all persons whose words or actions they might think reprehensible, and afterwards try them and put them to death. They had keys to every apartment of the ducal palace, and could thus penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers, and, in course, might command access to the house of every individual in the community. They continued in office only one year, but were not responsible afterwards for that conduct which they had pursued while they were in authority. So much distrust and jealousy were displayed by this government, that the noble Venetians were afraid of having any intercourse with ambassadors, or with foreigners of any kind, and were even cautious of visiting at each other's houses.

Notwithstanding the terrific nature of this government, it was exer-

cised in modern times with such lenity, that many of the Venetians would rather wish to revert to it than to be subject to Austrian domination; and it is said that the arbitrary treatment of the people, during the emperor's first possession of the country, before the French withdrew it from his yoke, gave them a strong disgust to that transfer to which their weakness obliged them to submit. But it does not appear that, since the incorporation of the province with the Milanese, the yoke has been so grievous or oppressive as to produce general discontent.

While the superb Genoa stands on the shore, the equally stately city of Venice seems to be *in the sea*. It is seated on a great number of islands near the northern extremity of the Adriatic, and is separated from the continent by a lake of four miles in breadth. The grandeur of this city is almost beyond expression. "Its churches, palaces, and public buildings of every description (says Mr. Eustace), and sometimes even its private edifices, have in their size, materials, and decorations, a certain air of magnificence truly Roman." Among the churches, those of St. Mark and St. Zeminiano, della Salute, and the greater St. George, are, if not the most splendid, highly worthy of the most attentive notice. The ducal palace is a fabric of vast extent, of great solidity, and of venerable appearance. A late tourist says, "The richest palace in interior decoration that I saw, was that of the Grimani family. Its floors are of marble, the tables of precious stones, the chairs and curtains of rich silk, the walls covered with looking-glasses; and it contains a cabinet of valuable antique sculpture, and some of Titian's finest portraits. All that it wanted of an eastern palace was light and air, with distant vistas of hill and grove."

The arsenal of Venice is one of the best in Europe, considered as a repository: but it is miserably deficient in arms, stores, and shipping. The celebrated Rialto is a very bold arch, of an extraordinary but not unprecedented span, thrown over the grand canal. This spot is said to have been the seat of the original city, founded in the fifth century. The halls and chapels of various commercial fraternities are all of noble proportions, richly furnished, and decorated, like the churches, with masterly works of the pencil. It is perhaps unnecessary to observe, that a city which, viewed from some distance, seems to be in a manner built in the sea, must not only be an unhealthy but an incommodious place of residence. The flatness of the situation, the effluvia from so many canals, the narrowness of the streets, the necessity of making use of gondolas, or of crossing a multiplicity of ill-constructed bridges, and the want of pleasant rides and walks, are sufficient to deter a stranger from settling in this renowned city.

Before the revolution in this state, the capital contained 150,000 inhabitants; but the population is supposed to have decreased considerably since that event. The commerce of the city has also declined: yet it is not insignificant or contemptible: for the excellent mirrors produced by the Venetian manufacturers, their scarlet cloth, wrought silk, velvet, embroidered articles, and gold and silver stuffs, are still in great request; and their merchants copiously receive and re-export the commodities of other nations. The harbour is not very convenient, nor is it altogether safe at the entrance; but, to protect the city and port against the swell and the storms of the Adriatic, a strong rampart has been formed of blocks of Istrian stone for many miles along the shore.

The navy of Venice, at the commencement of the fifteenth century, was very formidable, if it consisted (as we are informed) of 300 ships of war,

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in which 80,000 men were ready to act, and of 145 galleys, in which 11,000 served. The mercantile vessels, at the same time, amounted to 3000; but, in 1782, not so many as 400 were employed. Before the subversion of the republic, the navy dwindled to twelve ships of the line and frigates, and fifteen galleys, beside a few sloops and cutters. To maintain this fleet, and an army of about 15,000 men, and to provide for other branches of the public service, the state had a revenue of a million and a half sterling.

In ecclesiastical affairs, Venice had two patriarchs; the authority of one extended over all the provinces, but neither of them had much power. All religious sects, even Jews, Mohammedans, and pagans, were tolerated by the government in the public exercise of their religion, except protestants, who were only suffered to worship God in private.

The Venetians are a lively ingenious people, extravagantly fond of theatrical amusements, with an uncommon relish for humor. They are in general tall and well made; and many fine manly countenances are met with in the streets of Venice, resembling those which are transmitted to us by the pencils of Paul Veronese and Titian. The women are of a fine style of countenance, with expressive features, and have an easy address. The common people are remarkably sober, obliging to strangers, and gentle in their intercourse with each other. As it was very much the custom to go about in masks at Venice, and great liberties were taken during the time of the carnival, an idea has prevailed, that there was 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 the ceremony of espousing the Adriatic, by throwing a ring into the sea, on Ascension-day, was also an object of attraction; but that custom is now discontinued.

Verona is beautifully situated near the Adige, partly on a hill, which forms the last swell of the Alps, and partly on the borders of an immense plain, extending from those mountains to the Apennines. Most of the streets are narrow and crooked; but some are wide, regular, and handsome. In the middle of that which is called the Corso, stands a double Roman gate, built of marble, and highly ornamented. The more pleasing remains of another gate form the front of an insignificant house; and a stately modern gate is also admired. Some fine palaces and religious structures likewise decorate the city: among the latter, the chapel of St. Bernardino and the painted cloister of St. Zeno are more particularly striking. The Museum is elegantly built, and contains a large collection of antiquities, principally formed and arranged by Maffei, a learned Veronese. When the French, during the revolutionary war, were masters of this town, they destroyed its fortifications, and wantonly injured some of the buildings, beside committing many base acts of depredation. For several centuries, Verona and the neighbouring territory composed an independent republic, which at length submitted to the superior power of Venice. Its present population is not inconsiderable, as it is supposed to exceed 57,000.

Vicenza, having been consigned to the flames by the emperor Frederic II., cannot be expected to display any Roman fabrics; but it contains numerous productions of modern genius, particularly many beautiful works of Palladio, who was born within its walls. The Olympic theatre, which was built in 1584, and is considered as his master-piece, is now used for the meetings of a literary society. Twenty palaces, inferior

to those of Genoa in materials and magnitude, but superior in beauty, are attributed to that celebrated architect, and form the glory of Vicenza. Both Verona and Vicenza have some silken manufactures, which, however, do not greatly flourish.

The decline of Padua has been frequently noticed, and travelers have repeated the observation, that grass grows in most of the streets: yet (says Mr. Eustace) "it is still a great, and in many respects a beautiful city, as its circumference is near seven miles, its population about 50,000 persons, and, notwithstanding the general narrowness of its streets, many of its buildings, both public and private, are truly magnificent." The abbey of St. Justina and its church are in the highest style of architecture; and the piazza before it is one of the largest and noblest in Europe. The town-hall is rather spacious than elegant; but the academical buildings are handsome, though they are so little frequented, that scarcely 650 students usually belong to an university which formerly boasted of having 18,000 assembled within its precincts. There are also literary and scientific societies; and the town is not wholly destitute of manufactures and trade.

Mantua is a large city, with wide streets and well-built houses; and the strength of the citadel and other works fully appeared in the long siege which it sustained from the French. The situation of the town is not very salubrious, as it stands on the borders of a large lake, formed by the Mincio. Its most remarkable buildings are the cathedral, the palace which the dukes inhabited, the hall of justice, the church and library of the Franciscans, and the structures belonging to the university and the imperial academy.

The duchy of SAVOY and principality of PIEDMONT, after being for many years under the sway of France, were restored, in 1814, to the king of Sardinia. Of the former territory Chamberri is the capital, and Turin of the latter. There is a great difference in the population of each of these cities; for Chamberri, in 1815, contained only 11,763 inhabitants, when the gay metropolis of the principality had about 85,000. The chief town of the duchy is situated in a fertile valley: it is defended by a citadel and other works in the old style of fortification, and is nearly surrounded by eminences, which are covered with neat villas. It is the seat of a royal council, and is honored with the residence of some of the Savoyard nobles.

Turin is divided into the old and new towns: in one, the streets are narrow and irregular, and the houses ill-built; in the other, the streets are wide, and the buildings in general are of a superior kind. The royal palace is more distinguished by interior elegance than by external magnificence, while that of the hereditary prince has a more imposing aspect. The citadel is a regular pentagon, and comprehends a well-stored arsenal and a cannon-foundery. In the street of the Po, the finest in the whole city, stands the university, of which it may be said, that the edifice is stately, and the institution is respectable. Various manufactures are carried on in the town, and the trade in silk is very considerable, because that commodity, produced in Piedmont, is, on account of its fineness and lightness, considered as the best in Europe.

GENOA is now a dependency of Piedmont, or of the Sardinian crown. The territory of the late republic was not very extensive, as it only contained 1,440 square miles; and its revenue, at the time of the arbitrary transfer, is said to have been less than 200,000*l.* sterling; but it ought to

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be observed, that the state derived additional resources from the flourishing bank of St. George. It was in a state of subjection to the French in 1528, when Andrew Doria roused the spirit of the people, and delivered his country from a disgraceful yoke. The capital is situated between mountains and the sea, and it makes a noble appearance to those who enter the harbour, being finely and romantically built upon a declivity, in a semicircular form. It is protected by a double range of fortifications, and the outworks enclose all the hills from which the city might be annoyed by an enemy. By the natives it is called the Super and not without some reason; for, beside many handsome private houses, it exhibits many magnificent churches, and fine palaces of marble: yet it has only two wide streets, the rest of the city being intersected by very narrow dark lanes, full of ill-built and incommodious houses. The church of the Annunciata is considered as the finest in the whole town; but it does not attract so many strangers as the little church of San-Stefano, which exhibits a picture of the Martyrdom of St. Stephen, the united work of Raffaello and Julio Romano,—or as the chapel of the Albergo dei Poveri (a noble charitable institution), which displays a beautiful alto-relievo by Michael Angelo, and a sculptured altar-piece by Puget. The chief manufactures of the city are velvet, damask, gold and silver tissue, and paper. It contains about 105,000 inhabitants. Its maritime power has dwindled to a few galleys. The common people are wretched beyond expression, as is the greater part of the soil of its territory, though near the sea some parts are tolerably well cultivated. The old government of Genoa was aristocratic, being vested in the nobility; the chief magistrate was called the doge; to which dignity no person was promoted before he had completed his fiftieth year. Once in 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 the government were issued in his name, and he was allowed to have a guard of two hundred Germans.

The duchy of PARMA, to which Placentia and Guastalla are united, forms one of the most flourishing states in Italy, in proportion to its extent. The soil is fertile in corn and fruit; and considerable manufactures of silk are carried on by the inhabitants. The city of Parma is the seat of a bishop, and has an university; and some of its churches and palaces are enriched with the beautiful productions of Correggio. It contains about 40,000 inhabitants, and Placentia about 32,000. Both are embellished with magnificent edifices. The late duke of Parma was a prince of the house of Bourbon, being son to don Philip, the younger brother of Charles III. of Spain. His court was thought to be the politest of any in Italy; and his revenue amounted to 175,000*l.* sterling a year. After his death in 1803, the French took possession of the duchy. On the ruin of Napoleon, the allies granted the sovereignty of it to his wife Maria Louisa.

The duchy of MODENA, after a patient endurance of Gallic tyranny, was restored by the congress of Vienna to the house of Este, with the ducal territories of Mirandola and Massa. The united country is nearly of the same extent with the duchy of Genoa, or that of Parma; and the population is said to amount to 350,000, of whom about 23,000 occupy the capital, which stands in a delightful plain between the Secchia and the Panaro, and is strengthened by a citadel. Of this city a female visitant of Italy says, "It is not large, but has that air of liveliness which

distinguishes a capital. Its general architecture is exceedingly elegant, and somewhat striking to a stranger, the majority of the streets being built with open arcades, which add greatly to the beauty of the place. The ducal palace is a handsome structure, not (like that of Parma) on too great a scale for the state, but completely finished, superbly furnished, and kept up in a suitable style. Among its decorations is a rare and very beautiful marble, called *scogliato*, of a bright azure blue, slightly mixed with deeper shades of the same color. The library of this palace is numerous and excellent, and the picture-gallery is esteemed one of the finest in Italy."

To the grand duchy of TUSCANY, the king of Naples was obliged to resign the state delli Presidii (a part of the Siennese), and his share of the isle of Elba. About 7,250 square miles form the dimensions of the country. Florence, its well-known capital, contains about 85,000 inhabitants. It is situated between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno. It is a place of some strength, and its large old structures, which were occasionally used as fortresses, have an imposing aspect, while its modern buildings make a more pleasing impression. The valuable antiquities accumulated in the courts and gardens of the mansion of the Medici family by Lorenzo the Magnificent, and the permission given by him to the Florentine artists to examine such fine models, rendered his residence a sort of *studio*, and led to the establishment of the celebrated gallery. The busts of the Roman emperors and other personages are very striking; two statues of Apollo, and the representation of the death of Laocœon and his two sons, are viewed with earnest attention; but, of the sculptural remains, the most admired is the statue of Venus, which, from the inscription on its base, appears to have been fabricated by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the son of Apollodoros. It is of white marble, and is a model of fine proportions, beauty, and elegance.

The palace Pitti is now the residence of the grand duke; and it is a brilliant school of pictorial art. Some of its apartments are decorated by many of the finest portraits and history-pieces that the world can exhibit, and the walls are said to "breathe an air of the highest art."

The other chief towns of Tuscany are Pisa, Leghorn, and Sienna: the first and last are much decayed; but the second, which the Italians call Livorno, is a very handsome city, built in the modern style with such regularity, that both gates are seen from the market-place. It is well fortified, having two forts toward the sea, beside the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable prospect of the sea, and of many villas on the land side. Here all nations, even the Mohammedans, have free access, and are allowed to settle. The inhabitants are reckoned at 47,000, 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 heavy imposts, are in a thriving condition. This town has a fine harbour; and its merchants supply a great part of Italy with colonial produce, the commodities of the Levant, and the general merchandise of Europe.

The inhabitants of LUCCA are the most industrious of the Italians. They had improved their country into a beautiful garden, so that their annual revenue amounted to 80,000*l.* sterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 42,000 inhabitants, who deal in silk, wine, and fruit, especially olives. The vicinity of the grand-duchy of Tuscany

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kept the people of Lucca constantly on their guard, in order to preserve their freedom; for, in such a situation, universal concord and harmony could alone enable them to preserve the blessings of their darling liberty, whose name they bore on their arms, and whose image was not only impressed on their coin, but also on the city-gates, and all their public buildings. They have now, however, lost their republican freedom, being subjected to the authority of the infanta Maria Louisa.

The republic of ST. MARINO is here mentioned as a geographical curiosity. Its territories consist of a high craggy mountain, with a few eminences near the bottom; and the inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties as a republic, with little intermission, for 1,300 years. It was under the protection of the pope, before it was enslaved by the French. It has since resumed an aspect of independence.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE is dignified by the possession of Rome, formerly the splendid capital of civilised paganism. That city is thirteen miles in circumference, and its population probably amounts to 165,000. It stands upon the Tiber, an inconsiderable river when compared to the Thames, navigated only by small boats and barges.

The castle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortress, would be found to be of small strength, if it should be regularly besieged. The city, standing upon the ruins of ancient Rome, lies much higher, so that it is difficult, if not impossible, 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 the old town in the magnificence of its structures. Nothing perhaps in the city, when it was mistress of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church; and probably 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, 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. It is, however, in various points of view, a most attractive spot: and even a cursory survey of its curiosities would occupy a long period. The pope's three palaces, those of the chief nobility, the religious structures, the colleges and academies, concur with the numerous remains of ancient art (the most striking of which we have mentioned in another place) to interest the spectator in a very high degree.

The cities of Bologna, Ferrara, and Ravenna, have been restored with their territories to the pope. The first is the most flourishing of the three, and therefore deserves, at least, transient notice. Its situation is rich, beautiful, and picturesque. Villas and villages form its suburbs. Like Modena, it has numerous arcades; and, like other cities of Italy, it has a number of fine paintings distributed among its churches and the mansions of its principal inhabitants. Lady Morgan says, "The Bolognese, always characterised by the Italians as *franchi e giocondi*, have added since the French revolution, to these amiable qualifications, a certain weight, which is the result of their improved system of education for both sexes. By the overthrow of monastic institutions parents are obliged to educate their children at home, or to send them to the liberal

schools newly established, which are calculated to prepare the males for the universities, and then for the world, and the females for domestic duties, once so little known in Italy. The abolition of vain distinctions, which served only to separate and distract, was more willingly submitted to in Bologna than in any other city of the peninsula; and the permanent effects of this change are visible in the actual position of society, in which birth forms no ground of exclusion against those who can produce credentials of talent and education."

Ancona, situated on the Adriatic, is a place of considerable trade, and contains about 25,000 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 Nîmes, is the most entire monument of Roman magnificence existing.

The rest of the ecclesiastical state contains many towns celebrated in ancient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of their former splendor: but they are at present little better than desolate. Loretto, in the mean time, an obscure spot, never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, became the admiration of the world, for the riches which 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, and that all the trees, on the arrival of the sacred mansion, bowed with the profoundest reverence. The image of the Virgin, and that 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. The two figures were loaded with gold chains, rings, and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies; and the angels of solid gold, placed on every side, were equally enriched with precious stones. To the superstition of catholic princes Loretto was indebted for this mass of treasure. But, on the approach of the French, after their invasion of the papal state, this treasure was privately withdrawn, and the invaders found little to gratify their rapacity: indeed it was very generally supposed, that all the gold and jewels had been carried away long before, and ordinary 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 keep 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.

The king of NAPLES and SICILY, or, as he is sometimes styled, the king of the Two Sicilies, possesses the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Saunium, Campania, Apulia, Magna Græcia, and the island of Sicily, containing in all about 30,000 square miles. They are bounded by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-west, where Naples borders upon the ecclesiastical state. The air is hot, and the soil fruitful. The city of Naples, which is adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, and its charming neighbourhood, would be a most

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delightful place of residence, were it not for the vicinity of Vesuvius, which sometimes threatens the city with destruction, and for the number of insects and reptiles, some of which are venomous. The houses 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, or the streets which are open to the bay.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the nation were in the hands of the ecclesiastics, before the French seized the kingdom in 1806, the protestants lived here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majesty presented to his holiness every year a palfrey, as an acknowledgement that his kingdom was a fief of the pontificate, yet no Inquisition was established in Naples. The royal revenue amounted to about 1,400,000*l.* sterling a year, of which Sicily only contributed 280,000*l.* The exports of the kingdom were legumes, hemp, wool, oil, wine, cheese, fish, honey, wax, manna, saffron, guns, capers, macaroni, salt, pot-ash, flax, cotton, silk, and various manufactures. The king had a numerous but generally poor nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, marquises, and other high sounding titles; and his capital, the most populous in Italy, contained at least 350,000 inhabitants. Among these there were 30,000 *lazaroni*, or blackguards, the greater part of whom had no dwelling-houses, but slept, every night in summer under porticoes, piazzas, or any kind of shelter they could find; and in the winter, or rainy time of the year, which lasts several weeks, the rain falling in torrents, they resorted to the caverns under Capo di Monte, where they slept in crowds like sheep in a fold. Those who had wives and children lived in the suburbs of Naples, in huts or in caverns. Some gained a livelihood by fishing, others by carrying burthens to and from the shipping; many walked about the streets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labor in their power for a very small recompence. As they did not meet with constant employment, their wages were not sufficient for their maintenance: but the deficiency was in some degree supplied by the soup, bread, and other provisions, which were distributed at the gates of the convents. But the success of the French, and their spirit of reform, occasioned a great change in some of these respects. If their hostility to monastic foundations soon showed itself, their conduct in that instance ought not to be severely blamed: but they deserve the asperity of censure for having aggravated the general poverty by extortion and rapine: they neither encouraged trade nor the arts, nor properly attended to the welfare and happiness of the nation. In one point, however, they acted in such a manner as to claim our praise. It is well known that the horrible practice of assassination was encouraged under the preceding government by impunity: but the usurpers Joseph and Joachim repressed that enormity by condign punishment.

With regard to the present state of the country, we may observe, that it is not very flourishing; the energies of the people, which might make it a most desirable spot, are not properly called into action; and a general reform is requisite to give it its due rank among civilised kingdoms.

Although there is so much poverty among the middle and lower classes, there is a great appearance of wealth among some of the nobles, who 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. The clergy also are

addicted to parade and ostentation. Religious processions are more numerous and splendid at Naples than in Rome: the churches are more magnificently decorated, and more rich in silver.

In all parts of the kingdom of Naples the traveler may be said to tread on classic ground. There are still traces of the memorable town of Cannæ, as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and granaries; and the scene of action, between Hannibal and the Romans, is still marked out to posterity by the name of *pezzo di sangue*, "the field of blood." Tarento was once the rival of Rome; but it is at present scarcely remarkable for any thing but its fisheries. Sorrento stands on the verge of steep rocks that overhang the bay, and, of all the places in the kingdom, has the most delightful climate. Brindisi, formerly Brundisium, 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 emerged. Except Rome, no city can boast of so many remains of ancient sculpture as Benevento, while Reggio contains nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral.

ITALIAN ISLANDS.] Of these, the largest is SICILY, which is 180 miles in length, and 90 in breadth. Both the ancients and moderns have maintained that it 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. Its climate 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 near the summit of Mount Ætna, where snow falls, which the inhabitants preserve for use, as our pastry-cooks do ice.—Next to Ætna, the chief mountains of Sicily (says captain Smyth) are "the Madoria and Pelorian or Neptunian ranges, from which inferior chains diverge in various ramifications. These are of primitive formation, more or less covered with calcareous *strata*, intermixed with pyrites, schistus, talc, and marine deposits, and abounding with mineral riches and organic remains."—The soil is of considerable depth, and, by the genial influence of the climate, with the aid of volcanic impregnations, vegetation is rendered very quick and abundant. With regard to the aspect of the country, he observes, that "the appearance of the coast is romantic, and formed by nature into strong positions of defence, while the interior presents a combination of mountains, ravines, and valleys, the last of which in many parts branch out into extensive plains, possessing a soil exuberantly fertile, and animated by numerous flocks and herds. The hilly regions, presenting alternately undulating slopes, bold crags, and rugged elevations, with woody declivities, complete the prospect."

The Sicilians in general have good natural capacities, which, however, they do not properly cultivate. In conversation they are cheerful, fanciful, and inquisitive; their delivery (like that of the people of Naples) is vehement, rapid, full of action, and their gesticulation violent; the latter is so significant as almost to possess the powers of speech. But (says Mr. Smyth) the principal trait of Sicilian character is an "effeminate laziness among persons of easy circumstances, which they attempt to excuse, by alleging the intense heat of the climate, without either taking example from the warmer regions of Egypt and India, or the energy of the British colonists in the torrid zone, or attending to the practical illustration which they have near them, in the hardy labor and patient industry of the peasants and porters of Malta."

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Literature and science appear to be at a low ebb in Sicily. A considerable number of *litterati*, and of extemporaneous versifiers, may indeed be found, and there are many who have a smattering of science; but the learning which they display is rather the varnish of a base metal, than the polish of a true gem.

Palermo, the capital, is supposed to contain 125,000 inhabitants: a hundred years ago, it comprehended a far greater amount. The two principal streets, crossing each other, form a regular square, embellished with handsome and uniform buildings. The palaces of the viceroy and the archbishop, the cathedral and many other churches, the town-house, several hospitals, and the *porta-felice*, or happy gate, are striking objects in a view of the city; but, in the opinion of Mr. Galt, all these are inferior in construction and in embellishments to that edifice which was formerly a college of the Jesuits.

Before the earthquake of the year 1783, Messina was a large, handsome, and flourishing city. By that dreadful accident, a great part of its lower district, and of the port, was destroyed, and no small damage done to the lofty range of buildings called the *Palazzata*, in the shape of a crescent; but the force of the earthquake was inconsiderable at Messina or Reggio, compared with its violence 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 Ulterior Calabria, on the western side of the mountains Dejo, Sacro, and Caulone. At Casal-Nuovo, 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 office of the secretary of state 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. Messina has recovered in a great degree from the effects of the earthquake; all traces of which will probably in a few years disappear. Its advantageous situation for commerce, its good harbour, its silken manufactures, the fruit and wine and other products of its environs, will command trade, if the inhabitants are attentive to their own interest.

Catania, after the earthquake of 1693, rose from its ashes, like the phoenix, with fresh splendor. The city is elegantly built: manufactures and trade are carried on with spirit and success; and the inhabitants are distinguished by their superiority to the rest of the islanders in politeness and social virtues.

Syracuse displays some vestiges of its ancient importance. The ruins of its theatre and amphitheatre, having been excavated in the rock on which the city was built, are still considerable; and the catacombs remain, to excite the wonder of the spectator. It has two harbours, between which stands the citadel, a work of great strength; but its trade is insignificant, and its population scarcely exceeds 19,000.

The island of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles south by west of Leghorn; is 135 miles in length, and 60 in breadth; and is intersected from north to south by mountains, the summits of some of which are generally covered with snow. The lower grounds are fertile, and produce the finest wheat

and barley, oil, and wine: but the land does not receive a proper degree of cultivation. In the hands of an industrious and intelligent people, this island would be far more productive than it now is, and might be rendered the seat of a very lucrative commerce. It has mines of silver and of lead, a variety of precious stones, and quarries of granite and porphyry. A tunny fishery is carried on along the coast; the natives also fish for coral with success; salt is a great article of exportation; and barilla, though inferior to that of Spain, is furnished in considerable quantities. The skins of wild and tame animals may be procured in abundance; and all kinds of provisions may be obtained on more reasonable terms than in any other part of the Mediterranean, except Algier.

Cagliari, which is the Sardinian capital, has about 30,000 inhabitants. Many of the houses still show traces of Spanish grandeur; but an air of decay is visible through the whole town. Yet a castle and other fortifications give an air of dignity to the place, and the university adds to its respectability, though it has not diffused any great degree of learning over the island. There is also a seminary for the particular instruction of the rustic children, who, when they are invited to the metropolis for that purpose, are allowed to attend the school even while they are in domestic service. The citizens are courteous and civilised in comparison with the peasants, who are so wild and ferocious, that it is dangerous to venture into the country without an armed escort.

The unsettled state of the country may be conjectured from the necessity of appointing a military officer to assist the prefect, in each division of the island. Before the present reign, the nobles had acquired such power from the weakness of the government, that they usually soared above the law: but some steps have lately been taken to render them amenable to justice, and to prevent their tenants or dependents from taking arms in their defence. The ecclesiastical power has also been diminished, if not sufficiently humbled.

The islanders are a motley assemblage, in consequence of the number of nations that have at different times possessed the country. The Iberi from Spain are supposed to have been the first inhabitants: the Carthaginians, Romans, Vandals, Saracens, Pisans, Genoese, Spaniards, and Piedmontese, have successively exercised their sway over the island. To the house of Savoy it has belonged since the quadruple alliance of the year 1718. During the long usurpation of Savoy and Piedmont by the French, it was honored with the residence of the sovereign; but it is now consigned to a vice-regal administration, as the king is more pleased with the *agrémens* of Turin, and the manners of his continental subjects, than with the meanness of Cagliari or the rudeness of the skin-clad provincials.

The island of CORSICA is about 110 miles long, and 45 in breadth. A mountainous chain traverses the country from north to south, the highest point being 8700 feet above the level of the sea. The heat of the summer is moderated by the sea-breeze; but the cold of the winter is intense; and the exhalations from low grounds are frequently productive of disorders. The soil is not infertile; and corn, wine, oil, and fruit, might be produced in great abundance, if the natives were active and industrious. Mines of copper, lead, and iron, and quarries of marble, are found in the island. The strongest and most populous town is Bastia, which is occupied by 9350 persons, whose skill in the

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fabrication of the *stiletto* is equal to the malignity with which they occasionally use it. Ajaccio, the birth-place of Bonaparté, is the seat of government, is well-built, and has a good harbour; and Corté has the honor of an university. The island has been successively in the hands of the Carthaginians, Romans, Goths, Saracens, Pisans, Genoese, French, and English. Our countrymen were not suffered long to retain it, though they endeavoured to conciliate the inhabitants by the grant of a representative government. It was recovered by the French in 1796; but they derive little benefit from it. Hospitality is the chief virtue of a Corsican: it is one of the first duties instilled into his mind in his infancy. But his general character is not so friendly as that circumstance would induce us to suppose; for there is a degree of fierceness in his demeanor which is unpleasant and repulsive. He compels his wife to be his drudge and his slave; he rides on his mule, while she paces along at his side; and he expects that she will attend to the concerns of agriculture, while he smokes his pipe in the shade, or roams about the mountains with his dog and his gun. It might be thought that the fondness of the Corsicans for poetry would soften their manners in this respect; for a poetical turn is usually accompanied with gallantry. They are great *improvisatori*, and some of the songs and other pieces which they compose or recite are very interesting.

CAPRI, the ancient CAPREA, is an island to which Augustus Cesar often retired for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a scene of the most infamous pleasures. 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 to the sea; yet Anò-Capri, the largest town, is situated here; and in this part are several places which have a very fruitful soil. The eastern end of the island also rises in precipices that are nearly as high, though not so long, as the western. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a strip 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, various fruit-trees, 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. In the midst of this fertile tract rises a hill, probably covered (in the reign of Tiberius) with buildings, some remains of which still appear: but the most considerable ruins are at the extremity of the eastern promontory.

ELBA is a small island near the Tuscan coast, about twelve miles in length and five in breadth. It was divided between the grand duke of Tuscany and the king of Naples, one of whom possessed the port of Ferrisio, and the other that of Longone. On the deposition of the emperor Napoleon, he was allowed to exercise full sovereignty over it; but he was soon disgusted with the insignificant grant, which however exceeded his deserts. The metallic wealth of the island was known to the Romans. Beside iron, it has mines of copper, tin, and lead: vitriol, sulphur, and the load-stone, are also among its products; but it is not fertile in corn, though it boasts of oil and wine.

The LIPARI ISLANDS lie to the north of Sicily, and were anciently called the Æolian islands. They are twelve in number, are subject to the king of Naples, and produce great quantities of alum, sulphur, nitre, cinnabar, and most kinds of fruit, in great perfection; and some of their

wines are much esteemed. 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. Lipari contains about 9,500 inhabitants, and Stromboli 1000; but Vulcano is uninhabited, and several of the other islands are little more than barren rocks.

We may here introduce MALTA, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian islands. It is the southernmost island in Europe, and is situated between Sicily and Africa. Its circumference is about fifty-five miles, length twenty, and its breadth twelve. It contains two cities and twenty-two villages. The old town is called *Medina*, that is, the city, by way of eminence; and its most remarkable structures are the cathedral and the palace of the grand master. The catacombs under it excite nearly as great attention as the buildings on its surface; they are very extensive, and, as they contain regular streets in all directions, they have procured for the place the appellation of the subterranean city. On a peninsula, which is defended by the fort of St. Elmo, stands the city of Valetta, neatly built of stone. Most of the houses have balconies, and the roofs form a terrace, furnished with pipes leading to the cisterns, so as to preserve, in a place where fresh water is scarce, every drop of rain. Some of the churches were very rich before the arrival of the French, who studiously reduced them to their ancient poverty, being probably of opinion that plainness and simplicity were more suitable to a holy place than gorgeous ornaments. Of the other public buildings, the most striking are the hotels of the different knightly fraternities, the university, the treasury, town-hall, and palace of justice.

The air of Malta is clear, but excessively hot. The whole island is a white rock, covered with a thin surface of earth; yet, by industry and perseverance, the inhabitants have overcome all apparent obstacles to cultivation; and "the shallow soil (says Mr. Roerdanz) is in a manner forced to support its cultivators; for, although it produces very little grain, the cotton raised in the island is a great source of wealth to the inhabitants. The trade of Malta does not, however, consist so much in the exportation of its produce (among which oranges and all kinds of fruit are not the least considerable), as in the supplies of various articles received in English, French, and Italian vessels, and in large importations of grain from Italy." The cotton gloves and stockings, manufactured in this island and in Gozzo, are in high repute.

From the reign of Charles V. to the time of the French revolution, the island remained under the government of the gallant knights of St. John of Jerusalem, a religious and military order founded in 1104, soon after the first crusade. Being driven by the Turks from the isle of Rhodes, they were permitted by the emperor, in 1530, to settle in Malta. When the English took the island from the French, who had treacherously seized it, they were willing to recognise the authority of the knights, if the independence of the order should be guaranteed by the chief powers of Europe; but the intrigues and encroachments of Napoleon induced our court to retain an important station, which, by the convenience of its situation and its extraordinary strength, might contribute with Gibraltar to secure the command of the Mediterranean.

The population of the island is said to amount to 63,000. The majority of the inhabitants are of African descent. They are characterised by M. de Boisgelin, as "very industrious, active, faithful, economical, courageous, and the best sailors in the Mediterranean:" but he adds,

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that they are "mercenary, passionate, jealous, vindictive, and addicted to thieving." They do not appear to be strongly attached to the British government; but, aware of its power, they submit to it with seeming patience.

[ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The order of *St. Januarius* was instituted by the king of Naples, in 1738. He limited the number of knights to thirty, and required that all should prove the nobility of their descent for four centuries. *St. Januarius*, the celebrated protector of Naples, is the patron of this order. The order of the *Annunciation* was instituted in 1355, by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I., who bravely defended Rhodes against the Turks. It is reckoned among the most respectable orders in Europe: the knight must be of a noble family, and also a catholic. In 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 the condition of maintaining two galleys against the Turks.

It is pretended that the body of *St. Mark* was removed from Alexandria, in 828, to Venice. This saint was immediately declared by the government and people to be their guardian, and his picture was painted on their ensigns and banners. The order was an honor conferred by the doge 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 was merely honorary: they had no revenue, nor were they (like other orders) under any obligations by vows. About the year 1460, Frederic III. emperor of Germany, instituted an order which he dedicated to *St. George*, the patron of Genoa. The doge was perpetual grand-master. The badge was a plain cross enameled, pendent to a gold chain, and worn about the neck. In 1561, Cosmo, grand-duke of Tuscany, instituted the order of *St. Stephen*, the members of which wear a red cross with right angles on the left side. The order of the *Holy Ghost* was founded with the chief seat of the knights, 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 ensign is a white patriarchal cross with twelve points, sewed on the breast on the left side of a black mantle. The order of *Jesus Christ*, instituted by pope John XXII., was reformed and improved by Paul V. The reigning pope was to be always sovereign of it, and it was designed as a mark of distinction for the nobles of the ecclesiastical state.

[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, Lothaire, Louis, and Charles. Lothaire, 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 contending tyrants; but, in 964, Otho the Great re-united that country to the imperial dominions. It 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.

Near the close of the tenth century, Beroald or Berthold, a descendant of Witikind, the Saxon chieftain, was invested with the dignity of count of Maurienne by the emperor Otho III.; and Amadeus II., one of his successors, became count of Savoy. Piedmont was gradually acquired by this family; and Sardinia, in 1718, was added to the continental dominions of the same line of princes, in exchange for Sicily, which had only been a temporary possession.

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 Ghibellines, 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 the immense profits of the trade with India, 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 the supreme power; and pope Pius V. gave to one of his descendants (Cosmo, the great patron of the arts) the title of the grand-duke of Tuscany in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaston de Medici, in 1737, without issue. The duchy was then claimed by Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his son-in-law Francis, afterward emperor, in lieu of the duchy of Lorraine, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, the second son of his imperial majesty, became grand duke in 1765; and, in 1790, he was succeeded by his son Ferdinand.

No country has undergone greater vicissitudes of government than Naples or Sicily. Christians and Saracens by turns conquered each. 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 1266, the popes being then all-powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the succession of the line of Tancred, and Naples became subject to French princes, who held it, with some interruptions and tragical revolutions, till the Spaniards drove them out in 1503, when it was annexed to the crown of Spain.

Sicily, in 1282, fell under the sway of Peter of Arragon, after the massacre of 8,000 French, at Palermo and other places; in 1412, it was transferred to the royal family of Castile, from one of whose descendants it was wrested by Ferdinand of Arragon, styled the Catholic. From that time it was in effect, if not in name, an appendage to the Spanish monarchy.

The Spanish government under the Austrian line was so oppressive, that it gave rise to the famous revolt, headed by Massaniello (or Thomas

Anello), a young man, who, by his valorous exploits, raised the people to arms, and drove the Spaniards out of the kingdom. He was afterwards killed by the Spaniards. The revolt was suppressed, and the king, Charles V., sent a fleet to Sicily, which received into its harbors a great number of Spanish soldiers, who were afterwards put to death by the Sicilians. The king, in 1706, the duke of Savoy, and the emperor, entered Sicily, and the king, Charles V., sent a fleet to Sicily, which received into its harbors a great number of Spanish soldiers, who were afterwards put to death by the Sicilians.

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Anello), a young fisherman, 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 perfectly re-established, he became delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and 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. In consequence of various treaties, which had introduced don Carlos, son of the king of Spain, 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: this was followed by a very sanguinary campaign; but the farther effusion of blood was stopped by a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at first demurred, but afterwards acceded, and don Carlos remained king of Naples. On his accession to the crown of Spain, in 1759,—it being found, by the inspection of physicians and other trials, that his eldest son was by nature incapacitated for reigning, and his second being heir-apparent to the Spanish monarch,—he resigned the crown of Naples to his son Ferdinand.

The Milanese, the fairest portion of Italy, passed through several hands; the Viscontis were succeeded by the Galeazzos and the Sforzas; and, in 1526, it fell under the power of Charles V., who gave it to his son Philip. It remained subject to the Spaniards till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1707, by the imperialists. They were dispossessed of it in 1743; but, by the emperor's cession of Naples and Sicily to the king of Spain, it returned to the house of Austria, who governed it by a viceroy, till it was subdued by the French, who were expelled in 1814.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga; on whose adherence 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 a 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 by Julius II. On the failure of the male line of the house of Farnese, it devolved to one of the sons of Philip V. of Spain.

The Venetians were formerly renowned for maritime power. When Constantinople was besieged by the crusaders, Venice furnished the ships requisite for the enterprise; and, in 1204, when the city was taken, the Morea and the island of Candia were transferred to the republic, which had long before possessed the greater part of Dalmatia. In 1486, Cyprus was added to the dominions of the Venetians. They were more than once brought to the brink of destruction by the confederacies formed against them among the other powers of Europe, but were saved by the disunion of the allies. The discovery of a passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the first blow to their greatness, as it deprived them of the Indian trade; and the Turks gradually took from them their most valuable possessions. In 1797 the French seized their capital, 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 with the Venetians, but were seldom able to maintain their own inde-

pendence by land, being generally protected, and sometimes subjected, by the French or the imperialists. Their doge 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 was revolutionised by France, and a new form of republican government erected.

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 a great part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the pontiff Gregory VII. 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 Reformation. Even since that era, 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, as a temporal sovereignty, was extinct, or at least dormant, during the prevalence of Napoleon. 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 sum of money, and consented that such statues and pictures, as commissioners appointed for that purpose should select, might be conveyed to Paris. But 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, organised a republic. The government was vested in five consuls, 32 senators, and 72 tribunes, called the representatives of the people.

The unfortunate pontiff was removed from one place of confinement to another, and his death was accelerated by the rigorous treatment to which he was subjected. In consequence of this vacancy, a conclave was holden at Venice; and cardinal Chiaramonte was elected to the papal chair. The new pontiff assumed the designation of Pius VII., and on every occasion behaved with the most submissive obsequiousness to the despot of France, at whose request, or rather command, he, near the close of 1804, made a journey to Paris to crown him emperor of the French. Notwithstanding this compliance, Bonaparté, after seizing different parts of his territory, at length dispossessed him of the whole, declaring the ecclesiastical state to be a part of France, and dividing it into the departments of Rome and Thrasimene. His holiness was sent to Savona, where he resided in retirement on a pension allotted to him, restricted to the exercise of his ecclesiastical functions.

In 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 reverse of fortune. The French 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 Sicily. The success, however, which attended the arms of the Austrians and Russians in the campaign of 1799, aided by the powerful co-operation of the British fleet under lord Nelson, again expelled the French both from Naples and Rome, and Ferdinand re-

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turned to his capital. But the victory of Bonaparté at Marengo, and the conditions of the peace of Luneville, which the emperor of Germany was compelled to conclude, again gave the French that power in Italy, which neither the pope nor the king of Naples could withstand. Bonaparté, at length, flushed with the success of his campaign against Austria, issued a decree in 1806, declaring that the king had ceased to reign. A powerful French army took possession of his continental dominions, and obliged him again to retire into Sicily. Napoleon then placed his brother Joseph on the throne of Naples, and, when he thought proper to remove him to Spain, supplied his place with his brother-in-law, Joachim Murat; an adventurer who had scarcely any other merit than courage, a quality which is frequently possessed by the lowest of the people, in as high a degree as by the most elevated characters. He remained in power until the year 1815, when, although he had for some time supported the allies, he was punished, for his concurrence in Napoleon's second usurpation, with the loss of his kingdom. After some months of concealment, he landed at Calabria, and was put to death (as he deserved) by martial law. Nothing could exceed the apparent joy with which the restoration of Ferdinand was attended; and, if he had learned wisdom in the school of adversity, the joy would have had a much better foundation. But he did not improve the government, or reward the attachment of his people by a studious attention to their interest.

The congress of Vienna made some important alterations in the state of Italy. Beside confirming the restitution of Savoy, Piedmont, Modena, Tuscany, and the territories of the church, the allied princes gave up Genoa to the king of Sardinia, and the Venetian dominions were incorporated with the new kingdom of Lombardy. But the despots, wherever their influence extended, would not suffer any change, favorable to the people; to take place in the mode of government.

Although the Italians in general were aware of the arbitrary views of the associated princes, some of their communities were willing to make an experiment of reform. In 1820, the influence of the Carbonari, a society of the friends of freedom, produced a revolution in the kingdom of Naples. The new Spanish constitution was proclaimed at Nola by a body of soldiers, and adopted in every province; and the king, not reposing sufficient confidence in the rest of the army, yielded to the torrent. The people of Sicily hoped to profit so far by this change of affairs, as to be enabled to withdraw themselves from the Neapolitan yoke; and, in the fury of zeal, the rabble of Palermo attacked the garrison, and committed sanguinary atrocities: but, on the arrival of troops from Naples, the insurgents and citizens were compelled to submit. The princes of the holy alliance now interfered, and, having summoned the king of Naples to appear before them at Laybach, haughtily desired him to apply proper remedies to the disorders of his realm. An Austrian army at length appeared within the boundaries of the kingdom, and several conflicts occurred, in which the invaders were successful. The Neapolitans could not be roused to energetic exertion, and their generals were therefore content to negotiate. It was agreed, that the realm should be governed by a council of state named by the king, with the aid of provincial assemblies, and that the country should be occupied and kept in order by Austrian troops. In this disgrace, and in the severe punishment of the chief promoters of the revolution, the people were constrained to acquiesce.

The revolutionary spirit also broke out in Piedmont. The count of

Sania Rosa, and other mal-contented, felt the pulse of the people, and seemed to think that it pointed to a political change. Even a prince of the royal blood, Charles Albert, appears to have embarked in the scheme of reform, with a view to the subversion of the Austrian power in Italy; but he was so unsteady in his principles, that no confidence could be reposed in him. The opposers of the court, having drawn a part of the army into their schemes, proclaimed at Alessandria the constitution of the Spanish reformers; and, as the flame of liberty began to spread over the country, the intimidated king resigned the sovereignty. As his brother declined the succession, Charles Albert acted as regent; but he soon relinquished his office. On the advance of an Austrian force, a slight conflict ensued, and the insurgents were over-awed into submission. The king persisting in his abdication, Charles Felix consented to mount the throne, and the transient storm subsided.

Annibale della Genga, born in August 1760, became pope in 1823, under the appellation of Leo XII.

Charles Felix, king of Sardinia, was born in April 1763, and married, in 1807, to Maria Christina, daughter of Ferdinand IV. of Naples.

Francis IV., duke of Modena, was born in 1779, and married in 1812, to the daughter of Victor, king of Sardinia.

Maria-Louisa, duchess of Parma, and archduchess of Austria, was born on the 12th of December, 1791, and married, in 1810, to the emperor of France, on whose dethronement she returned to her father's court. She has a son, Charles Napoleon, styled duke of Reichstadt.

Leopold, II., grand duke of Tuscany, was born in 1797, and married, in 1817, to the niece of the king of Saxony.

Maria-Louisa, princess of Lucca, sister of Ferdinand VII. king of Spain, was born in July 1782, and has a son and daughter by Louis of Parma, who was for a time king of Etruria.

Francis Januarius, king of Naples and Sicily, born in 1777, succeeded his father in 1825, and espoused, first, an Austrian princess, by whom he has a daughter, widow of the duke of Berri,—secondly, a Spanish princess, by whom he has Ferdinand and other sons.

EUROPEAN TURKEY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

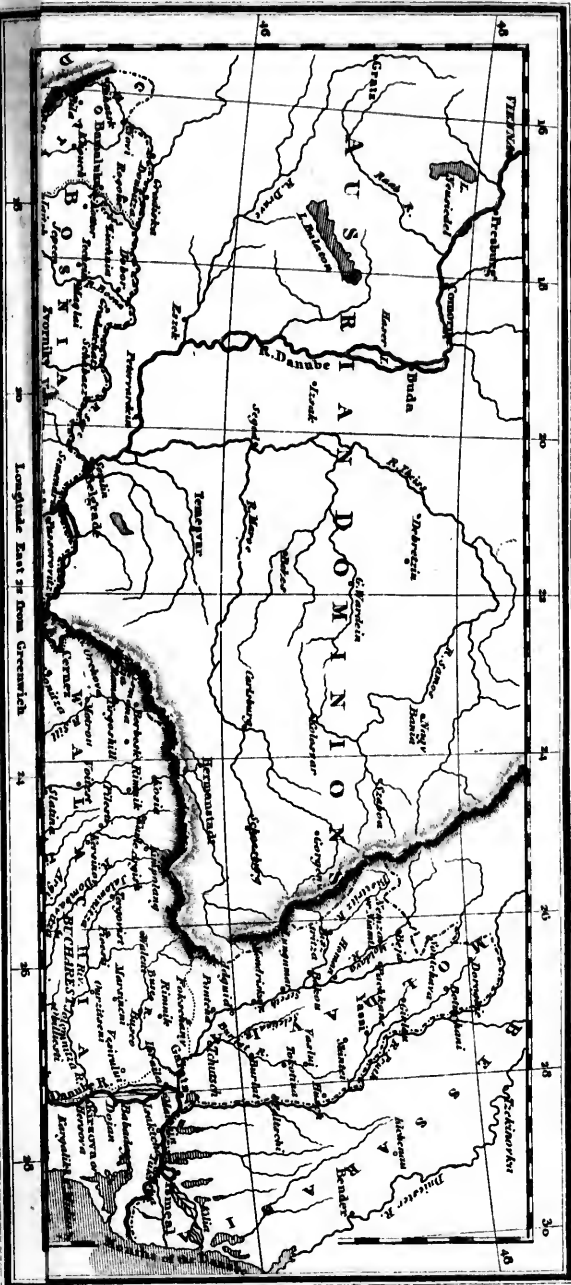
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Containing 150,000 square miles, with above 53 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] THIS extensive empire derives its name from that of its conquerors and possessors, the *Turks* or *Turkmans*, a word which, 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 Yafez or Japheth.

London: Published May 1825; by Mackenzie & the other Proprietors.





London: Published May 1852, by T. Agnew & Sons, the only Proprietors.

Scale of 300 Miles

Longitude East of Rom Greenwich

TURKISH EUROPE.

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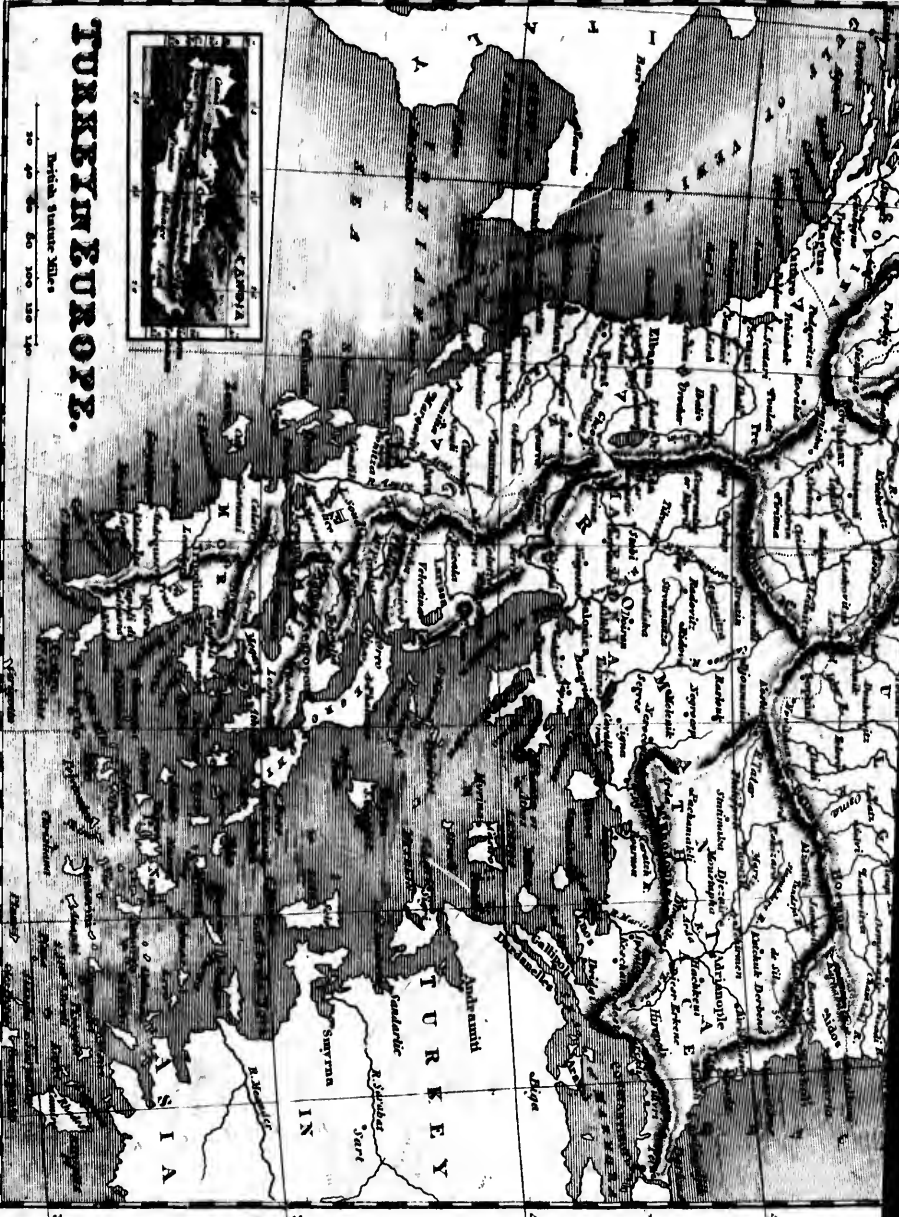
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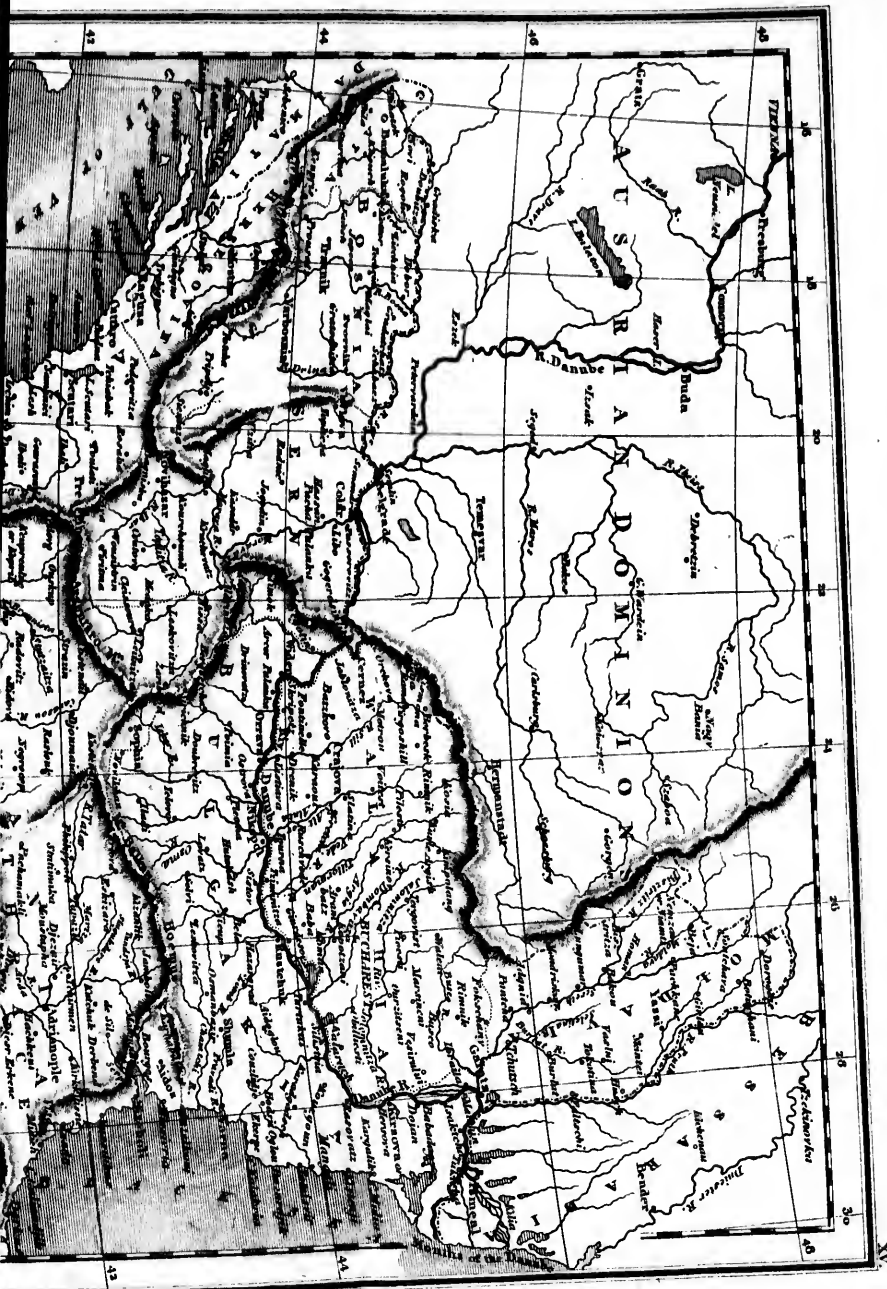
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Map containing numerous small place names and geographical labels in Latin, including 'Austria', 'Dacia', 'Sicily', and various regional names.

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BOUNDARIES.] Turkey in Europe is bounded by Russia, the Bukovine, Transylvania, and Sclavonia, on the north; by the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellespont, and Archipelago, on the east; by the Mediterranean, on the south; by the same sea, the Adriatic, 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	Moldavia, formerly Dacia.....	Yassi.....	13,000
	Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia.....	Bucharest.....	19,000
South of the Danube are,.....	Bulgaria, the east part of the ancient Mœsia.....	Sophia.....	24,500
	Servia, the west part of Mœsia.....	Belgrade.....	16,000
	Bosnia, part of the ancient Illyricum,..	Seraio.....	7,500
On the Bosphorus and Hellespont.....	Romania, part of Thrace.....	Constantinople, N. L. 41. E. L. 29.—23,	500
South of Mount Rhodope, or Argentaro, the northern part of Greece.....	Macedonia.....	Salonica.....	15,000
	Thessaly, now Janna Livadia, the ancient Achaia and Bœotia	Larissa.....	5,000
On the Adriatic Sea or Gulf of Venice, part of Illyricum..	Achaia and Bœotia	Athens.....	3,250
	Albania.....	Scutari.....	8,000
South of the Gulf of Lepanto, the ancient Peloponnesus Formerly Crete.....	Turkish Croatia.....	Bihacz.....	3,000
	The Morea.....	Modon.....	7,250
	Island of Candia....	Candia.....	5,000

SEAS AND STRAITS.] The Euxine, the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Asoph, the Sea of Marmora, the Archipelago, the Ionian Sea, and the Levant, would, were they properly improved, give to European Turkey, particularly that part of it where Constantinople stands, every advantage both for trade and dominion. The strait of the Hellespont or Dardanelles is about two miles and a half in breadth, and is famous for the passage of Xerxes over it, preparatory to his invasion of Greece, and for that of Alexander in his expedition against Asia. The Persian king, for the more easy transportation of his numerous forces, formed 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, on repeating his adventurous visit, he 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; Olympus and Pindus, which separate Thessaly from Epirus; and Parnassus in Achaia, formerly consecrated to the Muses.

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 we have described and traced in our account of Germany; the Save, the Mariza, and the Vardari. The Save is the boundary between Bosnia and Slavonia. The Mariza, or Hebrus, rises in the mountainous chain of Hæmus, and falls into the gulf of Eno; and the Vardari, or Axius, runs from Mount Scardus to the gulf of Salonica, where it is lost in the *Ægean* Sea.

METALS, MINERALS.] Mines of iron, lead, and copper, are found in several parts of Turkey, but they are neglected by the ignorance and indolence of the people. In Macedonia were anciently gold-mines, which annually produced to Philip, the father of Alexander the Great, 1000 talents or nearly three millions sterling. The ancient Phrygia, and the Troad, are likewise said to abound with 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 is salubrious, except 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; the soil is luxuriant beyond description; and it is necessary that it should be so for the subsistence of the inhabitants; for agriculture is not practised by the Turks either with diligence or with skill.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] These are excellent all over Turkey, especially when assisted by the smallest degree of industry. Beside herbs and plants of almost every kind, this country produces, in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon sweetness, figs, almonds, olives, and other fruits. In addition to 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 utility. The black cattle are large, especially in Greece. The goats are a most valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutriment which they afford both in milk and flesh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Bada-dagi furnish the best feathers for arrows for the Turkish archers, and they are sold at a high price. Partridges and other game are abundant in Greece; and, indeed, most of the ordinary birds, as well as quadrupeds, are found in all parts of European Turkey; but the Turks and Mohammedans in general are not very fond of animal food.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among these we may class mount Athos in Macedonia, called Monte Santo from the numerous monasteries 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; 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 was distant eighty-seven miles, eastward. There are twenty-two convents on mount Athos, beside a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of about six thousand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty: the other monks are anchorets, 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 the vine, and the olive, and the fig, they also live a very temperate life, and eat few gettables, dried herbs, and certain days (Le and conduce, with the monks doubtless) It appears from very healthy, and called *Macrobi* Apollonius, that the contemplation of the monks doubtless

The cavern of natural curiosities 70 yards high, stalactites, of the are large masses of beautiful marble.

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POPULATION.] equal either to perfect accuracy Christian era causes have been tyranny under many centuries but this also is favorable to particularly by the it is not followed mentioned as such dreadful capital or the state is presumed to eight millions posed to occupy states in and, though been in some before, it can

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people, that, beside their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and the vine, are carpenters, masons, 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, and conduce, with the salubrity of the air, to render longevity common. It appears from Ælian, that anciently this mountain was considered as very healthy, and conducive to long life; whence the inhabitants were called *Macrobi*; and we are informed by Philostratus, in the life of Apollonius, that many philosophers used to retire to it, 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 70 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. 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 state it with perfect accuracy. It certainly is not so great as it was before the Christian æra, under the emperors, or even a century ago. Various causes have been assigned for this decline of number. One is, the tyranny under which the natives groan; yet that has been the same for many centuries. Another cause is said to be the prevalence of polygamy; but this also has prevailed for ages. Such a practice is undoubtedly unfavorable to population, as may be evinced by various reasons, and particularly by the consideration, that the Greeks and Armenians, by whom it is not followed, are much more prolific than the Turks. The plague is mentioned as a third cause; but that disease does not in general make such dreadful ravages as it formerly did. Whatever may be the principal or the subordinate causes of the modern depopulation of Turkey, it is presumed that the sultan's dominions in Europe do not contain above eight millions of inhabitants; and not more than ten millions are supposed to occupy his territories in Asia. It is absurd to include the Barbary states in this calculation, as they are merely tributary to the Porte; and, though Egypt, since it was rescued from the power of France, has been in some degree more dependent on the grand signor than it was before, it cannot properly be deemed a subject province.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Turks are generally well-made and 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. They usually grow corpulent as they advance in years; and this increase of person is not considered as a deformity: on the contrary, a degree of plumpness is admired in Turkey, and this habit is consequently rather encouraged than avoided.

In their demeanor, the Turks are hypochondriac, grave, sedate, and passive; but, when agitated by passion, furious, raging, ungovernable; full of 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 on religious topics, 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 are most conspicuous in their building of caravanserais, or places of entertainment, on roads that are destitute of accommodations, for the refreshment of poor pilgrims or travelers. With the same laudable view they search out the best springs, and dig wells, which in those countries are a luxury to the wandering poor.

The ideas of the Turks 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. To wit and agreeable conversation they are, for the most part, absolute strangers; and they rarely think of the improvement of the mind. They have little curiosity to be informed of the state of their own, or any other country. If a vizir, pasha, or other officer, be dismissed, or strangled, they say no more on the occasion than that there will be a new vizir or governor, seldom inquiring into the reason of the disgrace of the former minister.

The Turks dine and sup early, and supper is their principal meal, during which they sit cross-legged upon mats. Among the great people, the 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 highly 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 prohibits 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 by laying the right hand on the breast. They sleep in linen waistcoats and drawers, upon mattresses covered by 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 to them by the Mohammedan law.

Their active diversions consist in shooting at a mark, or tilting 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, chess and draught-boards are their usual amusements: and if they play at games of chance, they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

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With the entertainments of the genuine drama the Turks have no concern; but they sometimes have a sort of show or spectacle, in which, beside rope-dancing and wrestling, something like a farce is acted, chiefly by Jews. Their music is not very refined; for the performers play by the ear rather than by notes. The usual instruments are the dulcimer, the flute, the Arabian violin, a kind of guitar, and a tambourine, resembling the ancient *tympaanum*.

A frequent practice is warm bathing, which the Turks consider as an amusing pastime and a luxurious enjoyment. In all the great towns, public baths are provided, in which the body is not merely dipped or washed, but is rubbed, kneaded as it were, and handled with such violence as would almost excite in strangers a dread of dislocation. Yet, with all their ablutions, neither the men nor the women are remarkable for cleanliness, as the articles of dress which are close to their persons are rarely washed; indeed, they have no regular change of linen.

The men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover the head with a turban, which they never put off but when they sleep. The shirt is without collar or wristband: over it a long vest is worn, which is tied with a sash; and the exterior garment is a loose robe. The breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with the stockings; and instead of shoes slippers are worn, which are put off in entering a mosque or house. Christians, or others who are not Turks, are not suffered to wear white turbans.

The Turks (says Mr. Thornton) do not attempt by art or by dress to improve or to correct the human shape. The clothes of persons of both sexes and of all ages, though more in quantity than the climate seems to require, are free from ligatures. They neither confine the neck nor the wrist, the knees nor the feet; and, though their clothes may encumber them in quick motion, they sit easily and gracefully upon them, when walking with their usual gravity, or when reclining on a sofa. The female dress differs little from that of the men; only the ladies wear stiffened caps upon their heads, with horns resembling a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are so muffled up as not to be known by their nearest relatives. Such of the women as are virtuous, make no use of paint to heighten their beauty, or to disguise their complexions; but they often tinge their hands and feet with *henna*, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make use of the same expedient to color their, beards.

Marriages in this country are chiefly negotiated by the females. When the terms are adjusted, the bridegroom pays a sum of money, a license is procured from a magistrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated with mirth and jollity, and the money is generally employed in furnishing the house of the young couple. The Turks are not allowed by the law to have more than four wives; but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain.

The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpse is attended by the relatives, chanting passages from the Koran; and, after being deposited in a mosque, it is buried in a field by the imam, or priest, who pronounces a sermon at the time of the interment. The male relatives 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 relinquish all finery for twelve months.

The Greeks, who compose a large portion of the inhabitants of Turkey in Europe, are gay, witty, and crafty. 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, interpreters, or agents, by the Turks who hold the first places of the empire. The ancient families court the honor of furnishing the first interpreter to the Porte, and of being appointed hospodars, or sovereigns of Walachia 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. Their priests are very numerous, and affect austerity of manners. The superior clergy exhibit some marks of mental cultivation, and have sufficient incomes for respectability of appearance; but the other ecclesiastics are ignorant and poor.

The peasants, in point of character, form the best part of the Greek population. They "possess (says colonel Stanhope) a large share of rustic virtue. They were within the sphere of Turkey's oppression, but without the sphere of her corruption." The inhabitants of the towns, he also observes, are avaricious, artful, intriguing, and deficient in honor and integrity. The captains are frank and simple in their manners, but addicted to plunder. The soldiers are brave and hardy, and preserve their gaiety amidst dangers and privations. The people of the highest class are in general arbitrary, rapacious, unprincipled, and luxurious.

A national resemblance pervades the persons of the Greeks; yet, in general, the complexions of the islanders are more dark, and they have stronger frames than those of the continent. Their faces and forms, as far as we can judge, are like those which served for models to the ancient sculptors. They have large dark eyes and regular features: their shoulders are broad; yet they are slender about their waists: their legs are apparently larger than those of persons who are accustomed to a tight dress, but are strong and well-made; and their usual stature is above the middle size. "Both the faces and forms of the women (if we may trust to the depreciating statement of a late observer) are very inferior to those of the men. Though they have the same kind of features, their eyes are too languid, and their complexions too pale. They are generally below the height which we are accustomed to think becoming in a female, and, when a little advanced in life, between twenty-five and thirty years of age, are commonly rather fat and unwieldy." He adds, in a positive tone, that he did not see any very pretty Greek women while he was in their country; but other tourists have viewed the Grecian ladies with more favorable eyes, and have paid due homage to their personal charms. The dress of a male Greek resembles that of the Albanians. A female wears a chemise of cotton,—a vest which is tight near the bosom, but rather wide and relaxed at the waist,—a gown, (sometimes made of fine flowered silk) flowing loosely behind, with long sleeves,—a riband or girdle immediately under the bosom,—and a shawl wrapped round the body as a lower zone, either tied in a spreading knot, or fastened in front by a clasp or other metallic ornament. The women sometimes wear small red caps, with gold tassels; but, in the house, the head is usually uncovered. When they go out, they are muffled in large cloaks, and conceal their faces with long veils. Many of them color the lower parts of their eye-lashes with a mixture of antimony and oil, and also daub their faces with paint: some also dye the hair so as to give it an auburn hue, and others impart to their tresses a black or very dark tinge. Marriage is usually preceded by the formality of betrothment, when the mother of the future husband puts a ring on the finger of the

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young lady, and kisses her cheek; and the ceremony is followed by an entertainment. The matrimonial forms, as practised at Athens, are of the following nature. The two lovers stand near the altar, each holding a lighted candle. The priest reads and chants, and then, taking two rings, and two garlands sprinkled with gold leaf, puts them on the fingers and heads of the couple, then recites another part of the service, and transposes the rings and the wreaths. This transposition is rapidly repeated, until the rings are left on the fingers which they are intended to fit, and the garlands are laid aside. Some bread, which has been blessed and marked with the sign of the cross, is then broken and eaten by the bride and bridegroom, who also take wine. The lady presents pieces of bride-cake to her attendant friends, and receives money in return, for which she kisses the hands of the donors. On the same or a subsequent day, she is conducted by her husband to his house, in solemn procession, amidst the acclamations of his friends and the sounds of the rebeck or lute.

CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Constantinople, the capital of this great empire, is situated on the European side of the Bosphorus. It was built by Constantine upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, as a more inviting situation than Rome for the seat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire; and, having escaped the destructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greatest as well as the most beautiful city in Europe, and the only one, during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any 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 Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the crusaders; and, as it was 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 Bezestein, enclosed 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 350 paces by 100, where, as the name imports, equestrian exercises were formerly and are still practised and enjoyed. 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 short, that 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.

This city contains about 300 mosques. That which is the most interesting to a Christian, if not the most magnificent, was formerly a Greek church, dedicated to the Holy Wisdom, or *Sancta Sophia*. It was built by the emperor Justinian: its form is quadrangular; its length is 270 feet, and its breadth 240. The cupola, which is lined with mosaic work, rests on pillars of marble, and has a fine effect; but it does not give sufficient light to the building. The interior, though many of its ornaments have been defaced, still retains considerable traces of its ancient grandeur, and the pavement is entirely composed of marble, worked in ornamental compartments. Dr. Neale says, that many of the other mosques appeared to him to be more worthy of admiration than this, particularly those of the sultans Solyman and Ahmed; and that a small mosque,

built by Selim III., lined with highly-polished slabs of grey marble, and simply adorned with tablets bearing golden inscriptions from the Koran, struck him as very beautiful. The churches which the Christians are allowed to frequent are unadorned with regard to the exterior; but some of them exhibit internal elegance.

The greater part of the city is ill-built, consisting of low wooden houses; and the streets, with few exceptions, are narrow, irregular, and inconvenient. Thus the pleasure which arises from a distant view, sinks into disgust on a close inspection; and the insalubrity of the situation, with the danger of fires, must prevent this boasted capital from being a desirable abode.

Both the magnitude and population of Constantinople have been exaggerated by credulous travelers. Some have estimated it to contain above 800,000 inhabitants, and others 600,000; but, according to more accurate observers, they do not far exceed 390,000, even if we include the occupants of the suburbs. Of these, 200,000 are Turks, 90,000 are Greeks, and the remainder Jews, Armenians, and Franks.

The palace of the sultan, called the serai, 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 is a throne as resplendent as the mines of the East can make it, with a canopy of velvet fringed with jewels, under which the sultan sits 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 number depends on the taste of the reigning monarch. Selim is said to have had 2,000; but the present sultan is content with a smaller number. On their admission, they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to sew and embroider, instructed in music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. They are scarcely ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand-signor removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs convey them to the boats, which are enclosed 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 sultan's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converse by signs with great quickness; and also some dwarfs, who are exhibited for his diversion.

Opposite to the seraglio, on the Asiatic side, is Scutari, adorned with an imperial mosque and villa. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand prospect, embracing in one view the city of Constantinople, the suburbs of Galata and Pera, the small seas of the Bosphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent country on each shore.

The fortifications of Constantinople are not remarkable for strength. They consist of three ranges of walls, extending across the neck of the isthmus, from the sea of Marmora to the end of the harbour, furnished at intervals with square and round towers, and with a fosse thirty feet wide, faced by a low wall or counterscarp. The harbour is both deep and spa-

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Adrianople stands on a rising ground near the confluence of the Arda, Touna, and Mariza; and the bridge over the first stream is so elegantly and substantially built, that it would not discredit a more splendid city. The mosques in this town were formerly very numerous; but, at this day, many of them are hastening to ruin. That of Selim is particularly magnificent, and the bazar of the pasha Ali is also a fine edifice. The population of the city is about 83,000, the Greeks forming a fourth part of the number. The palace is pleasantly situated, being separated from the city by the stream of the Arda, and commanding an extensive view of the country, which is fertile, and celebrated for its excellent plantations of vines. The Mariza, being navigable to the Archipelago, procures a considerable trade for the city.

Salonica was formerly a celebrated city of the Greek empire, under the appellation of Thessalonica. It is now the capital of the Macedonian province in Turkey, and, for a Turkish town, is populous and flourishing. The Jews in this city are more favored than the Greeks, being less severely taxed; and they are the chief managers of the commercial establishments. Their ancestors, it is said, bargained for certain privileges, when they transplanted themselves to this province. One street is chiefly occupied by workers in iron, who trace their origin from Egypt. They profess the Mohammedan faith, but the Turks do not esteem them as true believers. A considerable trade is carried on in wool, cotton, silk, corn, and tobacco; and manufactures connected with the three first of these articles exercise the industry of the inhabitants. The town is fortified with a wall, castles, and towers; but it would not be deemed strong by a skilful engineer. The houses in general are not handsome or well-built; the streets are narrow and ill-paved, and the bazars are mean. Among the remains of antiquity are a triumphal arch and a beautiful colonnade. The church of St. Demetrius, now a mosque, is greatly admired; but it seems to have been formed out of the remains of other edifices; and, after the effect of the first view, the eye is offended at the disorderly rudeness with which shafts and capitals have been joined.

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 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 holds out to their view all the riches of India. Whoever looks on a map of Turkey must admire the situation of their capital, upon a 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 cotton stuffs, carpets, leather, and sope.

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 labor. The internal commerce of the empire is very inconsiderable, and is chiefly managed 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 take back those of Turkey in the same vessels. The natives seldom attempt any distant voyages, and possess only a few coasting vessels in Asiatic Turkey, their chief imperial 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; yet that jealousy will not, perhaps, long continue to operate, when the obvious imbecility of Turkey offers such attractions to an ambitious power.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, LAWS.] The Turkish government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is shocking and unnatural in arbitrary power; and there is great truth in the representation, whatever sir James Porter may say of the sultan's obligation, by the laws of the Koran, to attend to the dictates of justice and equity.

"The grand signor (says Mr. Thornton) may riot freely in wantonness or cruelty. He may murder his father and his brothers, his wives and his children. He may shed the blood and seize the substance of his subjects. He may indulge the most vicious inclinations without any dread of censure or control, if, in his general government, he be sufficiently vigilant to provide for the wants, or sufficiently severe to restrain the murmurs and seditious of his people. If he guard his frontiers from encroachment, if he occupy and reward his soldiery, if he cause justice to be administered in cases where the interests of subjects only are concerned, his government will be loved, his person will be sacred, his crimes will be palliated, his injustice will be forgotten, and his memory will be dear to his people. The Turkish casuists indeed attribute to the emperor a character of holiness which no immoral conduct can destroy; and, as he is supposed to perform many actions by the divine impulse, of which the reasons or motives are inscrutable to human wisdom, they allow that he may kill *fourteen* persons every day without assigning a cause, or without the imputation of tyranny. Death by his hand, or by his order, if submitted to without resistance, confers martyrdom; and some, after passing their lives in his service, are reported to have aspired to the honor of such a consummation, as a title to eternal felicity." What can we say of such a government, but that it is a complete picture of despotism?

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 heads or the estates of such individuals as are not the immediate servants of the court. The most unhappy subjects of this government are those who approach the highest dignities of the state, and whose fortunes are constantly exposed to sudden alterations, and depend on the breath of their master. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the vizir, or prime-minister, his deputy the kiaya, &c. the reis-essendi, or secretary of state, are the most considerable. These,

as well as the mufti, and many others, are and are often the chiefs of the school of adversity and dangers, these are deficient in virtue, corruption, which of they have a farther uncertain how long tained. The admin over the whole empir and not from the law principles.

REVENUES.] The taxes which fall chiefly on Mohammedan religion sterling; but they are tortured from the government of presents. every species of oppression their opulence has suffered or misconduct, the crown. The deviation the offence, or the least opportunity of imperial decree to take the highest respect, "The will of God a testifying his entire the silken cord, which has tied it round his wants throw him on is cut off, and carried

ARMY, NAVY.] The army. To the main while the others are about 268,000. Tributary countries numbers of volunteers succeeding the office treasury are the supported, on the support who, having testified which Mahmoud was the fierce resentment

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as well as the mufti, the pashas or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raised from the meanest stations in life, and are often the children of Christian slaves taken in war. Tutored in the school of adversity, and arriving at pre-eminence through 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 accompany ambition in a humble rank; and they have a farther reason for plundering the people, because they are uncertain how long they may possess the dignities which they have obtained. 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 equitable principles.

REVENUES.] 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. These exactions amount to about five millions sterling; but they are trifling, when compared with the vast sums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of state, under the name of *resents*. These harpies, to indemnify themselves, exercise every species of oppression that their avarice can suggest; but, when their opulence has subjected them to a pretended suspicion of disloyalty or misconduct, the whole fortune of the supposed 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 despatched 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 uses similar expressions, 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, when he has tied it round his own neck, and said a short prayer, the officer's servants throw him on the floor, and soon strangle him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

ARMY, NAVY.] There are two species of militia in the Turkish empire. To the maintenance of one class certain lands are appropriated, while the others are paid out of the treasury. Those who have lands are about 268,000. Beside these, there are auxiliary forces raised by the tributary countries of this empire. In every war, also, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charges, in expectation of succeeding the officers. The forces which receive their pay from the treasury are the spahis or horse-guards, and a new body of infantry lately formed, on the suppression of the sultan's body-guards, called Janisaries, who, having testified a strong disinclination to the European discipline which Mahmoud wished to introduce, were assailed (in June 1826) by the fierce resentment of that cruel prince, and murdered in troops.

The naval force is very inconsiderable. In the last war with Russia, the grand fleet consisted of not more than seventeen sail of the line, and those were not in very good condition; at present the number is lessened. The galleys now are of no use as ships of war; but there are large vessels which belong to the merchants, and in time of war are taken into the service of the government.

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, Dispenser of all earthly Crowns," &c. At court, when mention is made of the sul-

tan, the appellation of *alem penah* (refuge of the world) is usually added to his title of *padishah*, or emperor. His loftiest title, and the most esteemed, because given to him by the kings of Persia, is *Zilullah* (shadow of God); and the one the most remote from our manners, though common among all ranks of his subjects, is *hunkiar* (the man-slayer), which is given to him because the law has invested him alone with absolute power over the lives of his subjects. His arms exhibit a crescent, crested with a turban, adorned with a plume of heron's quills. The motto breathes the most aspiring ambition; *donec totum impleat orbem*—implying an intention of prosecuting a glorious course until the fame of the empire shall fill the whole world: but we hope that his mischievous and odious career will soon be checked, and that the sway of such a barbarian will at least be confined to Asia.

RELIGION.] The established religion is the Mohammedan, so called from Mohammed, the author of it, some account of whom the reader will find in our history of Arabia. The Turks profess to be of the sect of Omar, in opposition to that of Ali, who, in the opinion of the Persians, ought to have immediately succeeded Mohammed. The mufti or *sheik islam* is the supreme chief of the religion of Turkey, the oracle who is consulted, and who solves all the questions which are put to him; his decisions are called *fetfas*. The grand signor has recourse to him in all difficult and intricate cases, and promulgates no law, makes no declaration of war, and 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 and propagating the religion of the prophet. The *ulemas*, or doctors of religion and law, constitute a powerful body, sometimes formidable to the throne itself. They possess lucrative employments, are secure from the extortions of pashas and great men, and cannot legally be put to death without the consent of 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 *imams*, who serve in the mosques, and the *muezzins*, 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 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 favor any revolution of government. Constantinople, Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for the 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 indulgence, has its archbishop or bishop. All male Christians pay also a capitation tax from seventeen years of age to sixty, according to their stations.

The insulting distinction of Christian and Mohammedan 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 a head-dress of dark colors, 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 stricken off in the

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LITERATURE.] literary nation; but supposed. Some ha tivation of learning khalif Omar, who i have given rise to improvement of the at Constantinople, a are commanded to obeyed this comma wholly neglected it endowed an academi seminary. Other s stated, that Morad quered, a mosque an founded at Constant posed of sixteen col tained as well as ed reigns; and, in 178 of study are cultivat ethics, the science theology, the invest laws of the prophet. ing was introduced a III.; but it was opp was alternately reviv great encourager of now restored to som the Koran, and of d wish to retain in manship.

But, while many struction, as to re general education even been observed students consist on nomy is mere astr and geography of them. Some unde an eclipse; but, t looked upon as ex addicted; the *mun* the sultan's househ the health, the safe essential to the publ or the precise insta taken; such as the a public building,

street, for indulging in more foppery of dress than the sultan or vizir, whom he may meet *incognito*, may be inclined to approve. If a Christian strikes a Mohammedan, he is put to death on the spot, or ruined by fines and severely bastinadoed; and if he strikes, though by accident, a spheri, or descendant of Mohammed, who wears the green turban, of whom there are hundreds in some cities, it is death without remission.

LITERATURE.] The Turks are very far from being a learned or literary nation; but they are not so totally uninformed as many have supposed. Some have affirmed, that Mohammed prohibited the cultivation of learning or science; and the language and conduct of the khalif Omar, who is said to have burned the Alexandrian library, may have given rise to that opinion: but the Koran itself recommends the improvement of the mind, and, over the door of the imperial library at Constantinople, a sentence is inscribed, intimating that true believers are commanded to study the sciences. The Turks have certainly not obeyed this command with zeal; nor, on the other hand, have they wholly neglected it. Or-khan, their second emperor, instituted and endowed an academy at Bursa, which gradually became a celebrated seminary. Other sultans followed his example; and it is particularly stated, that Morad II. not only erected, in every city which he conquered, a mosque and a caravanserai, but also a school. Mohammed II. founded at Constantinople an academy resembling an university, composed of sixteen colleges, in which 300 votaries of learning were maintained as well as educated. Many other academies arose in different reigns; and, in 1780, a new one was instituted, in which ten branches of study are cultivated, namely, the elements of grammar, syntax, logic, ethics, the science of allegories or rhetoric, philosophy, jurisprudence, theology, the investigation of the Koran, and an inquiry into the oral laws of the prophet. For the dissemination of learning, the art of printing was introduced among the Turks in 1726, by the permission of Ahmed III.; but it was opposed by prejudice and bigotry, and discontinued. It was alternately revived and disused. The unfortunate Selim III. was a great encourager of the art; but, after his death, it was exploded. It is now restored to some degree of activity, with an exception of copies of the Koran, and of commentaries on that sacred volume, which the Turks wish to retain in the ancient form, and in all the elegance of penmanship.

But, while many of the Turks so far profit by these means of instruction, as to remove the reproach of disgraceful ignorance, the general education is merely that of reading and writing; and it has even been observed, that the jurisprudence and theology of professed students consist only of commentaries on the Koran; that their astronomy is mere astrology, and their chemistry alchemy, while the history and geography of other countries are very imperfectly known to them. Some 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. To astrology they are greatly addicted; the *munejim bashi*, or chief of the astrologers, is an officer of the sultan's household, and is consulted on all occasions which relate to the health, the safety, or convenience of his master. It is even deemed essential to the public welfare to follow his opinion in determining the day, or the precise instant, when any important public business is to be undertaken; such as the march of an army, the laying of the foundation-stone of a public building, the conferring of any new dignity, and especially the

appointment of a grand vizir. The sultans religiously perpetuate this custom, which was delivered down to them by the khalifs, notwithstanding its repugnance to the general spirit and positive institutions of the doctrine and law of the prophet, who expressly denominates astrology a false science, and stigmatises its professors as liars.

[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, the writers frequently mix with it the Arabic and Persian. The Lord's Prayer in Turkish is as follows:

Ba'hamuz hanghe quiglesson, chuduss olssum ssenungh adun; gelson ssenungh memlechetim; olssum ssenungh istegung ni esse gugthaule gyrdé; echame gumozi herç non vere bize begun, zem bassu bize bo slyggozi; nyeze hizde basiaruz borestiglero mosi; hem yedma hizde ge heneme; de churtule bizjaramuzlan. Amen.

The Greeks speak a modernised Greek, called Romaic, and in the Asiatic provinces the Arabic and a dialect of the Syriac are spoken. A specimen of the modern Greek follows in their Paternoster:

Pater hemas, opios iso ees tos ouranou: hagiasthito onoma sou; na erti he basilia sou: to thelema sou na genetex itzon eu to ge, os is ton ouranon: to ptsomi hemas doze hemas semeron: ka sichorase hemas ta crimata hemon, itzone ka hemas sichorasomen ekinqu opou hemas adikoun: de meu ternes hemas is to pirasmo, alla soson hemas apo to kazo. Amen.

[ANTIQUITIES.] Almost every spot of ground, every river, and every fountain in Greece, exhibit the ruins of antiquity. On the isthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Isthmian games were celebrated, are still visible. The remains of an oracular temple of Apollo are still discernible at Castri, on the south side of Mount Parnassus; but the most interesting remains are at Athens; and these will be hereafter noticed.

The history of the Turks will be given at the end of our account of Turkey in Asia, from which country they derived their origin and extended their conquests into Europe: but we will here subjoin various particulars respecting some of their European provinces.

THE GRECIAN PART OF THE TURKISH EMPIRE.

ALBANIA extends in length from 39 to 42 degrees of northern latitude; but its breadth is inconsiderable, rarely exceeding eighty miles. On the accession of Selim III., this country was divided into five governments, one of which (that of Joannina or Yanina) was enjoyed by Ali, a bold adventurer, whose extraordinary character claims that notice which is due to courage and talents. He commenced his career as the leader of a predatory party; and, when he had followed this course for many years with considerable success, he purchased a pashalic from the Porte, and gradually increased his authority by encroaching on the power and jurisdiction of the neighbouring governors. He no longer regarded the banditti as his friends, but exercised the greatest severity upon them, whenever they fell into his power; and, when he had thus excited that terror which gave security to his government, he accepted the services of many parties of robbers, and enrolled them among his troops. He encouraged both inland trade and general commerce; erected bridges

over deep rivers and adorned them with bridges. The Sultan, when he exhibited instances to the public, he was frequently for many years the Porte, and

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over deep rivers, formed good roads, raised causeways across marshes, and adorned the towns with new buildings. Though an illiterate barbarian, he exhibited marks of a comprehensive mind, and seemed in some instances to have a sense of justice; but his rapacity was inordinate, and he was frequently guilty of excessive and horrible cruelty. After acting for many years as an independent prince, he was attacked by the troops of the Porte, and put to death, in the year 1822.

As there was a time when the territories which form this province were nearly depopulated by war, misgovernment, and anarchy (for this is said to have been the state of the country about the close of the seventh century), we may conclude that it contains few tribes which can pretend to a descent from the ancient Illyrians. The Bulgarians, and other barbarous nations, extended their conquests into this country; but the time when its name was altered to its present appellation, and the cause of the change, cannot be precisely determined. There is little reason to suppose that the Albanians of Asia had any connexion with it. The country fell, in the sequel, under the power of the Constantinopolitan emperors; but their authority over it was not so complete as to preclude the occasional independence or desultory tyranny of its princes or chieftains, many of whom appear to have exercised a clashing jurisdiction, when George Castriot rose into power, and so far united their pretensions as to be enabled to withstand the Turkish armies, and to extort from his harassed enemies the honorable denomination of *Scander Beg*, or Lord Alexander. After his death the province was over-run by the Turks: it was sometimes recovered in part, but was at length so far subdued by Selim II. in the sixteenth century, that it was thenceforward considered as an appendage of the Turkish empire.

The Albanians or Arnauts, as distinguished from the Greek inhabitants of the province, are generally of a middle stature, muscular and straight in their frames, but not large; and few of them have the least appearance of corpulence. Their chests are full and broad, and their necks long; their faces are of a long oval shape, with prominent cheek-bones. They have expressive eyes, arched eye-brows, small mouths, high and straight noses. They shave the beard, and the fore-part of the crown, leaving whiskers on the upper lip, and suffering the hair to flow unrestrained from the back of the head. When young, they have very white complexions: but, by labor and exposuro to heat, they contract a dusky hue.

Many of them, like the Illyrians and some other nations of antiquity, make figures on their arms and legs, which they color with gunpowder. Their dress consists of a cotton shirt and drawers, a woollen under-waistcoat, a vest or jacket with sleeves, a coarse shawl drawn tightly round their waists by a belt, and a great-coat or mantle, which, however, they rarely wear in the summer, except at night, when it serves for a sleeping-habit. On the top of the head a small red cap is worn by ordinary persons; but their superiors add a kind of turban to it, which, in the winter, is drawn round the neck, being composed of a shawl. The legs and feet are usually bare; but leathern sandals are sometimes worn, which, as well as other parts of the general dress, almost every Albanian can manufacture. To the belt a pistol is a constant appendage; and, when its peaked handle is worked in rough silver, its possessor is particularly proud of his ornamented weapon. A long gun is also found in every cottage; but it is made with little skill, and the powder which is used with it is large-grained and very bad. The belt holds a knife, the handle and sheath of which are often attached to

each other by rows of silver chains,—a species of ornament sometimes worn even by the men about their necks, and likewise used for the decoration of an ink-stand, which, whether they can write or not, is affixed to the girdle.

The Albanian women are frequently taller than the men, strong, and not ill-featured; but they bear in their countenances all the marks of wretchedness, ill-treatment, and hard labor. The female dress varies considerably in different parts. Some wear gowns of red cotton, with a turban-like shawl. Others are arrayed in white woollen, with a kind of scull-cap, composed of pieces of silver coin strung together, while the hair falls down in braids to a great length, also enriched with suspended money: but this fashion is confined to the younger part of the sex. Both the men and women are uncleanly in their persons: yet their habitations in general are kept in a state of neatness. Two rooms are supposed to complete an ordinary house, and a garden is usually annexed to it. Bread made of wheat or of barley, cakes of boiled or roasted maize, cheese made of the milk of goats, rice mixed with butter, eggs, dried fish, olives, and common vegetables, form the daily food of the inhabitants. On holidays, or on extraordinary occasions, they gratify themselves with the flesh of kids or sheep, or poultry. Their usual drink is the simple element: but even those who are of the Mohammedan persuasion sometimes have recourse to the indulgence of wine, and also partake of an ardent spirit which they extract from grape-husks and barley.

Like the Turks, the Albanians are an indolent race, not indeed inactive in a military capacity, but disinclined to industry or labor. Yet they are not deficient in vivacity; and, when inflamed with anger, they are as violent and furious as the inhabitants of Constantinople or Aleppo, roused from their ordinary torpor. They are not malignant or deeply vindictive; nor are they treacherous or ungrateful. A remarkable trait in their general character is that contemptuous disregard which they evince for their women, whom they seem to consider as their cattle or their household goods, rather than as objects of a sentimental passion, or as amiable and interesting companions. Their honesty is not of the most consistent kind: for they detest ordinary pilfering, while they do not think it disgraceful to rob in parties on a large scale. As warriors, they bear a high reputation in the East; and, when they are not engaged in hostilities, they cherish their martial spirit by a lively amusement, resembling the Pyrrhic dance of the ancients; in which, notwithstanding their habitual indolence, they indulge with the most persevering energy and outrageous transport.

With regard to religion, the majority of the Albanians, or at least an equal number, are Christians, some being followers of the Greek ritual, others of the Latin: and they are more observant of their devotional duties than the Moslems. Catholic prelates are allowed to act in the chief towns, under the direction of an archbishop, whose see is at the strong town of Antivari.

It is difficult to determine which is the capital of Albania; but, at present, the most flourishing town is Joannina, which is said to contain 30,000 inhabitants, of whom about three-fourths are Christians. The Greeks are the chief traders; and they procure, by land-carriage, from Durazzo and other ports, Venetian cutlery, glass, and paper, and various English and German manufactured merchandise, in return for wool, oil, corn, and tobacco. They send flocks of sheep and goats, and droves of cattle, to the Ionian islands; and, into the inland parts of Turkey, many

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embroidered articles, which are here wrought with considerable skill. The town exhibits many well-built houses, which have respectively a square court, ware-rooms or stables on the ground, an open gallery, and private apartments above: but the habitations in general are ill-constructed and incommodious; and some of the best houses are rendered gloomy by the smallness of the windows, which are latticed with cross-bars of wood. Four palaces adorn the city and suburbs: they are handsomely and comfortably fitted up, but are far from being magnificent structures.

The province of LIVADIA is ennobled by the possession of Athens, the remains of which attest its former magnificence. It has been remarked, that, while the ruins of Delphi, Delos, Olympia, Argos, Sparta, Corinth, and other celebrated towns of ancient Greece, disappoint the modern observer by their insignificance, "those of Athens remain, for the most part, in a state little inferior to their original splendor." This assertion is a palpable exaggeration; yet beautiful vestiges are discernible. The most interesting object is the *acropolis* or citadel, situated on an abrupt and lofty rock, commanding, in the capacity of a modern fortress, the scattered divisions of the city. The walls of the ancient fortifications were crowned with an ornamental entablature, some parts of which still remain; and these, and every other structure, were of the purest Pentelic marble. Rising above the rest of the buildings, the Parthenon, or temple of Minerva, enchanted every eye by its beauty and magnificence: but, of this celebrated structure, only a few columns and dilapidated parts appear. Some elegant pieces of sculpture, in bas-relief, belonging to the metopes of the peristyle, are in private hands; and others, which were brought away by lord Elgin, are deposited, with many other works of Grecian art, in the British Museum. The Erechtheum, and the adjoining chapel of Pandrosos, are in a ruinous state, but evince architectural taste and elegance. An octagonal building is still entire, called the Tower of the Winds, adorned with the beauties of sculpture. The monument of Lysicrates, called the Lantern of Demosthenes, consists of a basement, a circular colonnade, and a cupola of the Corinthian order; and, considered as a work which was erected above 2100 years ago, it is in an excellent state of preservation. A Doric portico also exists, supposed to have formed an entrance to a temple dedicated to Augustus, the deified emperor. Beside the larger ruins, fragments of statues, pedestals, and capitals of columns, are still to be seen in the walls and courts of many of the houses; and others have been dug up in the neighbouring fields, or found in wells. In the environs of the town, the most striking ruin is that of a building finished by Hadrian, called by some the Pantheon, and by others the temple of the Olympian Jove. Of 120 columns, only sixteen are now remaining, which are fluted Corinthian pillars, six feet in diameter, and sixty feet in height. The tomb of Philopappus also deserves notice. Its form is elliptical; and the concave part of the ruin contains two oval niches, in each of which is a statue. Between the niches, a pilaster appears, the base of which represents, in very prominent figures of bold and animated sculpture, a person drawn in a chariot by four horses, with a procession in front, and Victory in his train. We cannot close the survey of these beauties without particularizing the temple of Theseus, which is one of the most perfect ancient edifices now existing. The roof, indeed, is modern and vaulted, and the sculptures on the porches have been injured by time and wanton havoc: but the thirty-four columns and their entablatures, the steps,

and the walls of the coll, are little affected by the injuries of twenty-three centuries.

The population of Athens consists of about 10,000 persons, (Greeks, Turks, and Albanians), who occupy 1,250 houses, which are not so well-built or so commodious as those of Livadia, the capital of the province. The best house in the town belongs to the archbishop. The fortifications are unimportant, except the Acropolis or citadel; and even that would afford only a feeble defence against well-disciplined troops.

The Athenians seem to be more polished than the rest of the Greeks, and they have more of a literary turn. Considerable schools have been established among them; and, for the better regulation of these seminaries, a society was formed in 1813, under the appellation of Lovers of the Muses. There is one Muse to whom particular devotion is paid in the social circle, and that is Terpsichorè; for the Greeks may be called a dancing race. They are also fond of music, into which they infuse a high degree of feeling.

The MOREA was formerly a flourishing and populous country, including the Spartan and Corinthian states, and other distinguished Grecian communities. In the decline of the modern Greek empire, it was seized by the Venetians; but, since the year 1715, it has been oppressed by the tyranny of the Turks. The soil is in general fertile, and the produce varied and considerable. Fruit, wine, oil, gums, drugs, cotton, and many other articles, are exported in great quantities. The persons and manners of the inhabitants resemble those of other Greeks; but the Mainotes, or descendants of the free Laonians, preserve more of the Spartan courage, hardihood, and simplicity, than the rest of the Moreans. Of the aggregate population of the peninsula (about 250,000), they compose a seventh part. Their territories, which are in the south-eastern division, form fifteen districts, respectively governed by chieftains, who, even before the insurrection of the year 1821, were scarcely controlled in any respect by the bey of Maina. Even the bey was not a Turk, but a Greek; and so little obedience was paid to the Porte, that only a small tribute denoted the exterior submission of the Mainotes. Their laws are simple; or it may rather be said, that their morals serve in lieu of laws. Their adoption, however, of the practice of revenge, instead of having recourse to the law, cannot be justified. They have been accused of a propensity to theft. Undoubtedly there are robbers in their community: and offenders of that description are not punished with great rigor: but the generality appear to have a sense of honor and honesty. Thieves are not put to death among them, but are obliged to make a seven-fold restitution. They observe, not without reason, that the greatest amount of property is of little moment, when balanced against human life. They are industrious, sober, temperate, and remarkable for hospitality. They attend more to agriculture than to manufactures, and in the management of the soil they are not unskillful. With regard to religion, they are attached to the Greek church; and it is said that they are strict in ceremonial observances.

Modon, in the Morea, was formerly a flourishing place; it has a harbour and a fortress, and consists of two towns. Which is the more wretched, the Turkish town, or that of the Greeks, is a doubtful point.—Napoli di Romania is strong for a Grecian or Turkish town, but the streets are narrow, and the houses small and inconvenient. It is now the seat of the executive council of the new government, and its population is said to amount to 15,000.—Argos was, in early times, a place of high importance, and, at the commencement of the present war in Greece, it

contained 10,000 in the effects of hostility capital of the Morea in 1825, they half-d

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contained 10,000 inhabitants; but the population has been thinned by the effects of hostility.—Tripolizza was for some years considered as the capital of the Morea; but, when the Greeks despaired of its retention, in 1825, they half-demolished it by a voluntary conflagration.

PROVINCES OF EUROPEAN TURKEY.

SERVIA and BULGARIA were distinct kingdoms during the middle ages; and the inhabitants of the former territory still look back with fond regret to the time when they were thus dignified. Their frequent attempts to shake off the Turkish yoke, have been unsuccessful, and the most active insurgents have been cruelly put to death. Their country cannot be expected to flourish under the Turkish yoke; and their chief town, Belgrade, has lost that strength which once rendered it famous.

When the Bulgarians were in the plenitude of their power, they held the Servians in bondage: but the former were at length subdued by Basil, the Greek emperor, in the year 1017. To the Hungarians they were afterward subject, and finally to the Turks, to whose tyrannic authority they submit with great reluctance. They long supported the pasha of Widin against the grand signor: yet, if he had established his independence, only another form of tyranny would have ensued. Their province is not in a prosperous state, though many parts are fruitful in corn, wine, and pasture. The mountainous districts abound in mines, which, with proper attention from the government, might enrich the natives: but these and other advantages are neglected by Turkish indolence and impolicy. The Bulgarians, however, seem to live with some degree of comfort; and their women are not so poor as to be destitute even of unnecessary ornaments of gold or silver. Dr. Neale represents them as "a humane kind-hearted people, hospitable to such strangers as come under their humble roofs." Like the Servians, they are of Slavonian origin.

WALACHIA is one of the most fertile spots in Europe. A vast level tract of alluvial soil, extending from the Carpathian mountains to the Danube, is equally adapted for pasture and for tillage: the crops of wheat, maize, and millet, are most luxuriant; rich fruits are produced in abundance, and fine herds of cattle, and numerous flocks of sheep, are dispersed over the country. The forests abound with game, and the rivers and lakes with fish. Gold is washed down by the mountain torrents, and veins of that metal are known to exist in the Carpathian range. The inhabitants seem to have sprung from a mixture of Italian colonists with the ancient Dacians, and their language bears strong traces of Latinity. They were considered as a brave and manly race under the sway of their native princes; but their spirit has been depressed by Turkish tyranny. The chief town of the province is Bucharest: it is ill-built, and its society is neither elegant nor agreeable.

MOLDAVIA is now bounded to the eastward by the Pruth, in consequence of those encroachments, on the part of Russia, which were sanctioned by the treaty of 1812. The aspect of this province (says Dr. Neale) is singular; for it is intersected with marshes and small lakes in a degree curious beyond all description. Any other government but that of the Porte would have long since drained these sources of insalubrity; but they are suffered to remain nearly in the same state in which they may be supposed to have been many centuries ago. The inhabitants, indeed, seem fond of these collections of water, near which their villages are usually built. They are a rough, hardy, and simple race,

clad in white woollen or linen garments, sheep-skin caps, and sandals. They have a bold and warlike aspect, are active and alert, and live nearly as much on horseback as on foot. They feed great numbers of cattle, and, at the same time, do not neglect agriculture. The soil of their country is very fertile, and the wheat which they raise is excellent. They more particularly cultivate maize, and their principal food is pottage made of its meal. The slopes of the hills are covered with vines, the produce of which is nearly equal, in strength and flavor, to the boasted wine of Hungary.

Yassi, the capital of this province, is finely situated with regard to picturesque effect, but is rendered an unhealthy residence by the marshes which surround it. The houses are ill-built, and the streets, instead of being paved, are *timbered*, being covered with massive beams, resting at each extremity upon other pieces of wood, so as to be in a manner elastic. About 10,000 persons, among whom are many Albanians, Jews, and Russians, compose the population.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO EUROPEAN TURKEY, FORMING PART OF ANCIENT GREECE.

CANDIA, formerly Crete, is about 160 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The climate is salubrious, and the soil in general fruitful. The produce consists of fruit, oil, wine, saffron, honey, and wax; and the mines afford copper, iron, and lead. Some of the villages belong to the imperial mosques, others to that sultana who is the mother of the reigning prince, and the rest are chiefly holden for life by agas, on the principles of the feudal system.

The capital, which bears the name of the island, is situated on the northern coast, and was formerly so strong, that it sustained a siege from the Turks for 24 years, before they were able to reduce it. The fortifications are still considerable; but the town is meanly built, and the harbour is so choked with sand, that it is nearly useless. About 13,000 persons occupy this town, while Canea has not more than 7,500. Among the mountains which are situated to the south of Canea and Retimo, the Sphachiots reside, who are considered as the descendants of the ancient Cretans, and are distinguished from the other Greeks by their tall stature, handsome countenances, and manly spirit. They enjoyed peculiar indulgences and exemptions before the year 1770, when a strong body repaired to the Morea to join the Mainote insurgents, who were then encouraged, but afterwards deserted, by the Russians. In 1825, the Greeks in some parts of the island revolted from the Porte; but the infidel troops suppressed the insurrection, and the country is, in a great measure, subject to the sway of the Pasha of Egypt.

NEGROPONT, the ancient Eubœa, extends from the south-east to the north-west, on the eastern coast of Achaia or Livadia. It is ninety miles long and twenty-five broad, and is a station for the Turkish galleys. The island is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in such abundance, that all kinds of provisions may be procured at a very low rate. The chief towns are Negropont and Castel-Rosso.

LEMNOS, or STALIMENE, is situated in the northern part of the 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

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SCYROS is about sixty miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains: it is very thinly inhabited.

The CYCLADES lie like a circle round Delos, 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 supposed 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 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. 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 lightening and thunder, and ebullitions of the sea for several days, so that, when it arose out of the sea, it was a mere volcano; but the burning quickly ceased. It is about 200 feet above the sea; and, at the time of 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 IONIAN ISLANDS.

These islands are seven, namely, Corfu, Paxo, Santa-Maura, Cephalonia, Ithaca, Zante, and Cerigo. They were formerly subject to the Venetians; and, after being under the dominion of the French during the revolutionary war, they were formed into a republic under the protection of the Turks and Russians: but, since the settlement of the affairs of Europe by the congress of Vienna, they have been consigned to the care of Great-Britain, which appoints a high commissioner to preside in the representative body of the state, and controls or protects the Greek confederation by a garrison.

CORFU, the ancient *CORCYRA*, and the *PIREACIA* of Homer, who places here the garden of Alcinoüs, is about 45 miles long and 20 broad. It is situate opposite Albania, near the continent. The air is healthy, the soil fertile, particularly in the northern part; and the fruits of every kind are excellent, especially a delicious species of figs, there called *fracazzoni*. Its other principal products are salt, oil, and honey. The inhabitants amount to 70,000. The town of Corfu, the capital, is neither large nor well-built, but has an excellent harbour, is

a place of considerable strength, and the seat of government for this republic.

PAXO, situated to the south of Corfu, is about 15 miles in circumference: it produces wine, oil, and almonds; but has few inhabitants. The town is called San-Nicolo, and has a good harbour.

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 fruit, and has fine pastures. The principal article of its trade is salt. The chief town contains about 6,000 inhabitants, and is well fortified. Port-Drepano in this island is an excellent harbour.

CEPHALONIA, the ancient CEPHALLENIA, is situate opposite the Gulf of Lepanto, and is about 40 miles in length, and from 10 to 20 in breadth. The climate is very mild; flowers bloom in the season which corresponds to winter, and the trees bear ripe fruit twice in the year, in April and November; but those of the latter month are smaller than the others. About 60,000 persons inhabit the island: and they are represented as more industrious than their insular neighbours. They carry on manufactures of cotton, and engage in commercial navigation to a considerable extent. The chief articles of traffic are oil, muscadine wine, and the species of grapes called currants, that is, *corinthis*.

THEAKI, or LITTLE CEPHALONIA, was the ancient ITHACA, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulysses. It contains about 3,000 inhabitants. The name of the principal town is Valthi, which has a spacious harbour.

ZANTE, the ancient ZACYNTHUS, is situated opposite to the western coast of the Morea, and is about 14 miles long and eight broad. The climate and produce are 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, whence the sun has greater power to bring them to maturity. Here are also the finest peaches in the world, each weighing eight or ten ounces. The inhabitants of this island are about 30,000. The principal town is Zante, which is fortified, and has a good harbour.

CERIGO, formerly CYTHERA, is about forty-five miles in circumference, and contains, beside the chief town, forty villages, with about 8,500 inhabitants. The face of the country is rocky and mountainous; yet the soil produces corn and flax: the cotton plant is also cultivated; and wine is made by the inhabitants, but not for exportation. The capital has a castle, erected on the brow of a promontory, capable of strong resistance, if a hill to the westward should be secured. It also boasts of twenty churches, and of a respectable academy. The island has two ports; but its trade is very inconsiderable. The people are a simple honest race, cheerful and content with their scanty means of subsistence. Among the natural curiosities may be mentioned a cavern, which has never been explored to the end, but which exhibits, in the progress of research, an arborescent appearance, compared by Mr. Galt to a "subterranean forest of petrified trees."

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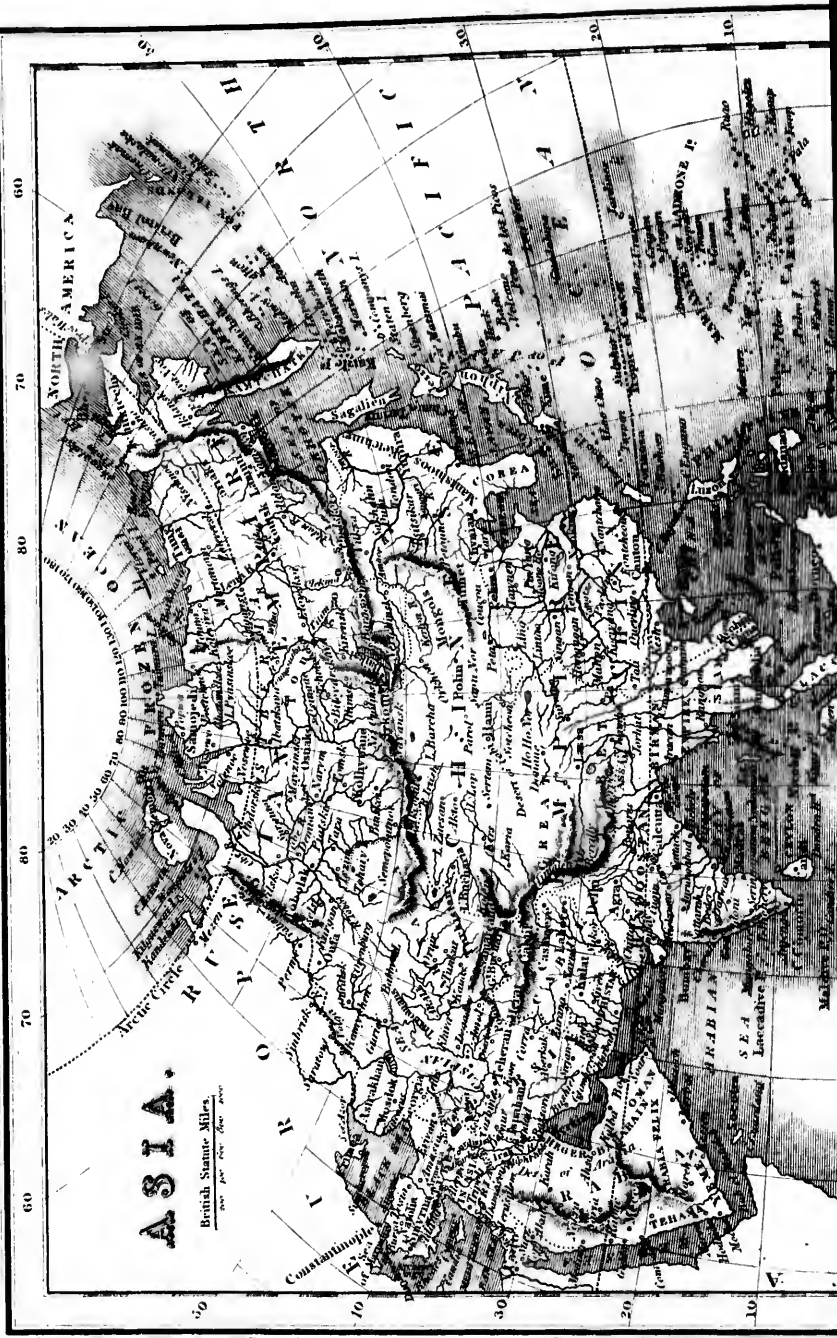
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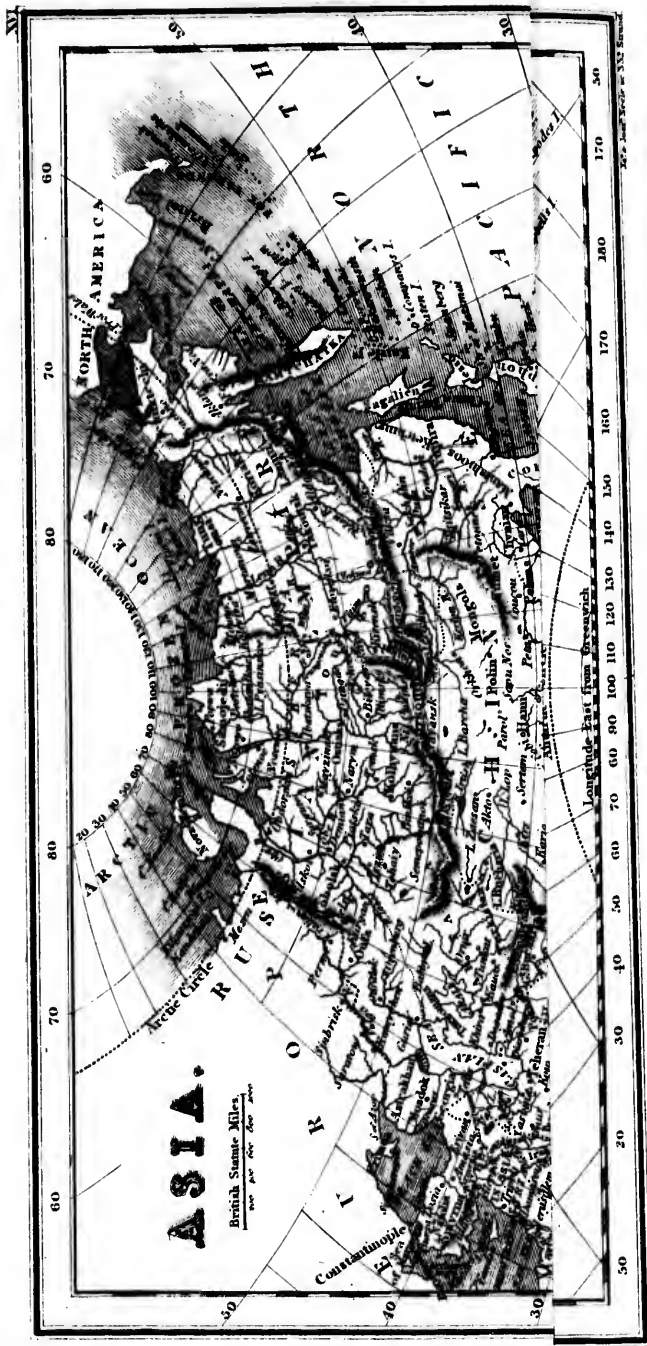


ASIA.

British Statute Miles
Scale 1:100,000,000

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NORTH AMERICA
ARCTIC OCEAN
RUSSIA
MONGOLIA
CHINA
INDIA
MALAY ARCHIPELAGO
AUSTRALIA
PACIFIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
SOUTH AMERICA



London, Published May 2, 1874, by J. Neumann & the other Proprietors.

AS Asia exceeds also superior to the deliciousness of plants, spices, and beauty, and value of its silk records, that he formed the first was to spring. deluge, whence into the other parts once favorite people delivered by the was here that the Gospel was carried by his disciples founded, and the even with the first edifices were parts of the globe accounts, this question, that a gold which has lost and the best-cultivated other parts of soil being as rich for their indolence produced by the ened by custom as the south. Hence the French and any European bodies, among southern regions of their mind which our modern The south-cessively governed Persians, and were little known decline of the arms; and as founded in Asia that of Cyrus under the Khachian to the remaining success; the

ASIA.

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 silk and cotton. 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 the other parts of the globe. It was in Asia that God placed his once favorite 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 hence that the light of his glorious Gospel was carried, with amazing rapidity, into all the known nations, by his disciples and followers. Here the first Christian churches were founded, and the Christian faith miraculously propagated and cherished, even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Asia that the first edifices were reared, and the first empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all these accounts, this quarter claims a superiority over the rest. But it must be owned, that a great change has happened in that part of it called Turkey, which has lost much of its ancient splendor, and, from the most populous and the best-cultivated spot in Asia, has almost become a desert. The other parts of southern Asia continue nearly in their former condition, the soil being as remarkable for its fertility, as most of the inhabitants are for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly produced by the warmth of the climate, though in some measure heightened by custom and education; and the symptoms are more or less visible as the several nations are seated farther from, or nearer to, the north. Hence the Tartars, who live in nearly the same latitude with the French and Germans, are as brave, hardy, strong, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is deficient in the robust frame of their bodies, among the Chinese, Hindoos, and all the inhabitants of the most southern regions, is in a great measure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and their aptitude for various kinds of workmanship, which our most skillful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

The south-western portion of this vast extent of territory was successively governed, in early times, by the Assyrians, the Medes, the Persians, and the Greeks; while the immense regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or the ancient conquerors. On the decline of those empires, a small part of Asia submitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the seventh and eighth centuries, the Saracens founded in Asia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus or Alexander. In the thirteenth century, the Mongols, under the khan Genghiz (corruptly called Zingis), over-ran Asia from China to the Euphrates, and his grandson Houlakou extinguished the remaining splendor of the khalifate. Timour pursued a similar career of success; the Turks established their sway from the frontiers of Persia to

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the Archipelago; and the Russians now possess the northern division of this extensive quarter of the globe.

The prevailing form of government, in Asia, is absolute monarchy. If any of its inhabitants can be said to enjoy some share of liberty, they must be merely 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 Moslems are of the sect of Ali, while the others follow that of Omar; but both acknowledge 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, the people are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found in all parts of 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 been in a great measure abortive, chiefly in consequence of 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. Some of the European languages are also spoken upon the coasts of India and China.

The continent of Asia is situated between 27 and 190 degrees of east or 170 of west longitude, and between the equator and 78 degrees of north latitude. It is about 5,500 miles in length from the Dardanelles on the west, to the eastern shore of Tartary; and about 5,400 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 Black Sea, the Caucasian chain of mountains, the Uralian chain, and the river Ob, which falls into the Arctic or Northern Ocean. On the east it is bounded by the Pacific, 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 the following:

TURKEY IN ASIA.	
Nations.	L.
Asiatic	
Russia	
Georgia	
Chinese	
Tibet	
Independ.	
China	
Hindoo-	
stan	
Ind. beyond	
the Ganges	
Persia	
Arabia	
Syria	
Holy Land	
Natalia	
Diarbeker,	
or Meso-	
potamia	
Irak, or	
Chaldea	
Turcomania	
or Armenia	
Courdistau	
or Assyria	

Nations.	Length	Breadth	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bearing fr. Lond.	Diff. of time fr. London.	Religion.
Asiatic							
Russia	5000	2000	3,800,000	Tobolsk	2160 N.E.	4 10 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
Georgia	400	200	50,000	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.	Mo. & Ch.
Chinese	2500	1000	2,000,000	Chynian	4480 N.E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans
Tibet	1300	450	400,000	Lassa	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans
Independ.	1000	800	500,000	Bokhara	2900 E.	4 36 bef.	Pagans
China	1330	1030	1,100,000	Pekin	4320 S.E.	7 24 bef.	Pagans
Hindoo-stan	1700	1200	1,000,000	Delhi	3720 S.E.	5 16 bef.	Moh. P. & Ch.
Ind. beyond the Ganges	1650	800	700,000	New Ava	4800 S.E.	6 44 bef.	Pa. & M.
Persia	1200	900	700,000	Teheran	2300 S.E.	3 20 bef.	Moham.
Arabia	1400	1100	900,000	Mecca	2640 S.E.	2 52 bef.	Moham.
Syria	200	80	30,000	Aleppo	1860 S.E.	2 30 bef.	Ch. & Mo.
Holy Land	100	50	10,000	Jerusalem	1920 S.E.	2 24 bef.	Ch. & Mo.
Natolia	600	380	180,000	Bursa	1440 S.E.	1 48 bef.	Moham.
Diarbeker, or Mesopotamia	320	180	70,000	Diarbeker	2060 S.E.	2 56 bef.	Mohamedans with some few Christians.
Irak, or Chaldea	250	200	30,000	Bagdad	2240 S.F.	3 04 bef.	
Turcomania or Armenia	350	250	45,000	Erzeroum	1860 S.E.	2 44 bef.	
Courlistan or Assyria	200	150	30,000	Solymani	2220 E.	3 — bef.	Moham.

Turkey

Turkey in Asia.

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The chief Asiatic islands are those which constitute the empire of Japan, Borneo, Sumatra, Celebes, Java, Ceylon, the Philippines, and the Spice islands.

ASIATIC TURKEY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 950 } between		{ 27 and 45 East longitude.
Breadth 690 }		{ 31 and 41 North latitude.

Containing 265,000 square miles, with more than 37 persons to each.

BOUNDARIES.] This country is bounded by the Black Sea and Circassia on the north; by Persia on the east; by Arabia and the Levant Sea on the south; and by the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, which separate it from Europe, on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
The eastern provinces are	1. The Arabian Irak, or Chaldea	Bagdad.
	2. Diarbeker	Diarbeker.
	3. Coudistan	Solymani.
	4. Turcomania, or Armenia	Erzeroum.
Natolia, or Asia the Less, on the west.	1. Natolia Proper	Bursa.
	2. Anasia	Amasia.
	3. Aladulia	Adana.
	4. Caramania	Konieh.
East of the Levant Sea.	{ Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land. }	Aleppo, Jerusalem.

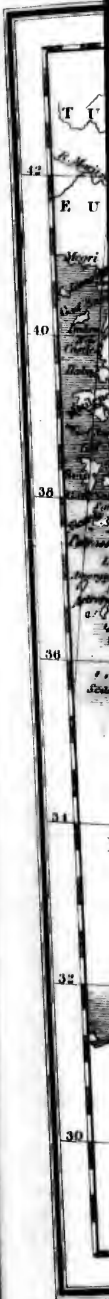
MOUNTAINS.] These are famous in sacred as well as profane writings: the most remarkable are Olympus, Taurus, Anti-taurus, Ararat, Lebanon, and Hermon.

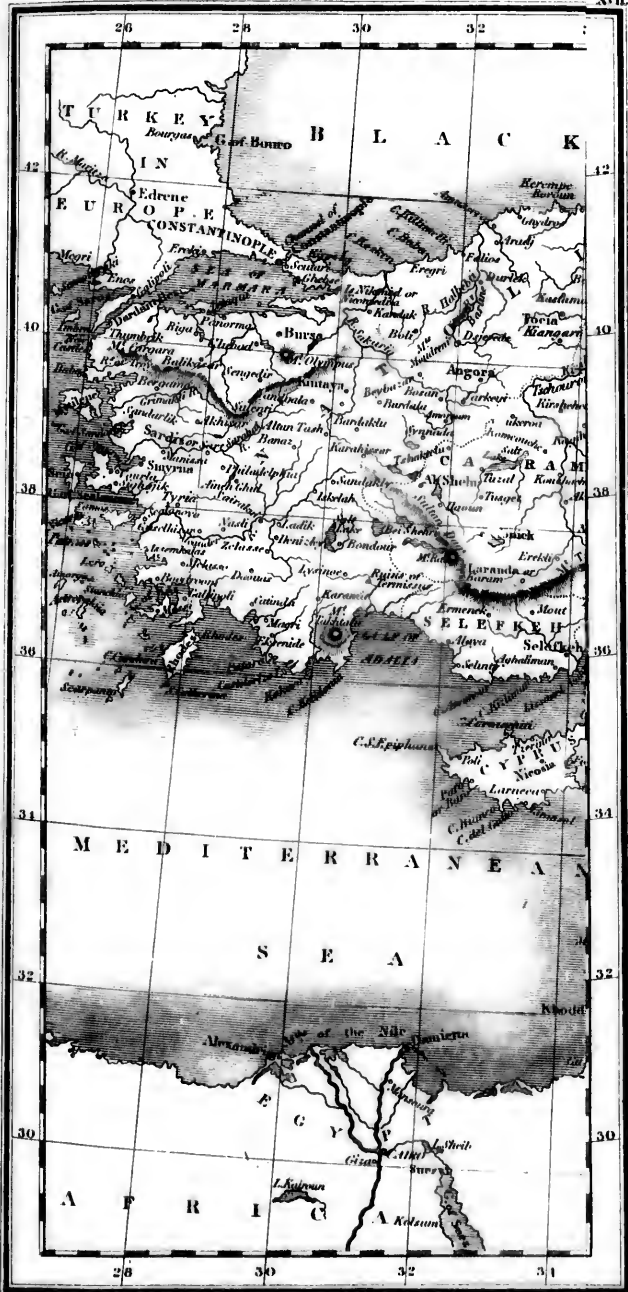
RIVERS, LAKES, MINERAL WATERS.] The chief rivers are, the Euphrates, which rises in the mountains of Armenia, and falls into the Persian Gulf, after a course of about 1,300 English miles; the Tigris, which flows into the Euphrates about 60 miles to the north of Bassora, after a course of nearly 800 miles; the Mæander, the Sarabat, or ancient Hermus, the Orontes in Syria, and the Jordan.

The lake of Van, in Coudistan, is about 80 miles long, and 40 broad. The lake of Rackama, to the south of Hilleh, 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 Bursa 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 may be supposed to possess a variety of valuable minerals and me-





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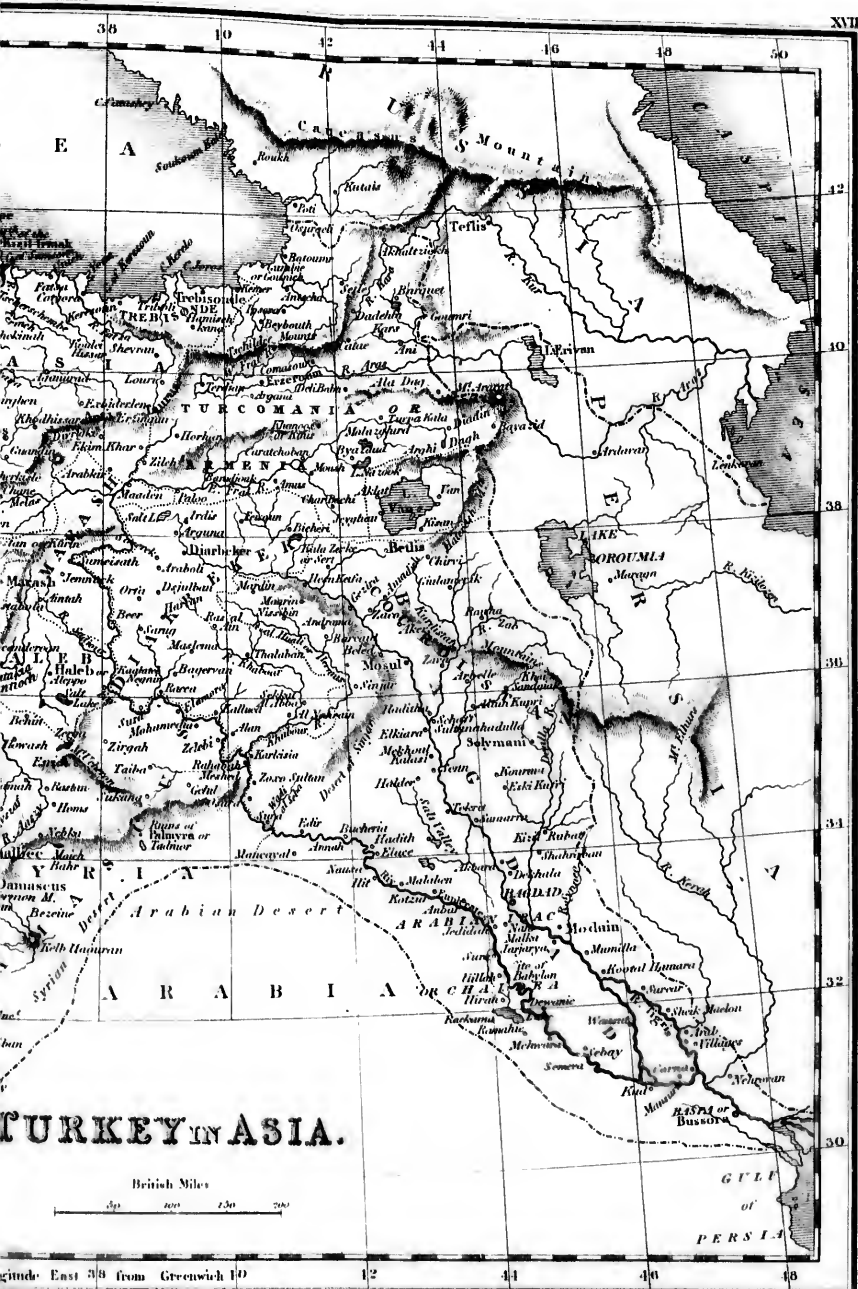
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London Published May 1st 1827 by J. Mawman, & the other



TURKEY IN ASIA.

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tals; 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 dreadful scourge to mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in predestination, which prevents them from using the 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. 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 the Greeks and Armenians. 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 uncommonly large; and their grapes far exceed those of other countries in size. In short, nature has brought all her productions here to apparent perfection.

ANIMALS.] The breeds 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. That manufacture which is known by the name of camelot, was originally made of a mixture of camel's hair and silk, though it is now often made with wool and silk.

As to birds, here are wild fowl in great perfection: the ostriches are well known by their tallness, swiftness in running, and stupidity. Except lampreys, mullets, and oysters, the Roman epicures prized no fish but those that were found in Asia.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The natural curiosities of Asiatic Turkey, though they must be numerous, seem to have been little explored or described by travelers, 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 trade, and have greatly declined from their ancient grandeur. Aleppo, however, preserves a respectable rank among the cities of 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 material in the middle. Aleppo, and its suburbs, are seven miles in compass, standing on eight small hills, on the highest of which the citadel 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 5000 Jews; but, at present, it does not contain more than 150,000. Whole streets are uninhabited, and bazars abandoned. It is furnished with most of the conveniences of life, except 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 caravanserais, or large square buildings, containing their warehouses, lodging-rooms, and counting-houses. This city abounds in neat mosques, some of which are even magnificent; in public bagnios, which are very refreshing; and bazars, which are formed into long, narrow, arched, or covered streets, with little shops, as in other parts of the East. The coffee is excellent, and considered by the Turks as a high luxury; and the sweetmeats and fruit 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; but its vicinage is dignified with superb remains of antiquity.

As the mosques and bagnios, 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 of a square form, and generally of stone: before the chief gate there is a square court, paved with white marble, and it has 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 them, without the use of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter a mosque; nor can a man with his shoes or stockings on. Most of these buildings have in their vicinity a place of entertainment for strangers during three days.

The bagnios in the Mohammedan countries are admirably well constructed for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but more frequently circular, built of white well-polished stone or marble. Each bagnio has three rooms; the first is used for dressing and undressing; the second contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them are paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath we have already mentioned.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, was the capital of the ancient Chaldeas, and, for some centuries, the metropolis of the khalifate, under the Saracens. This city retains few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular square, ill-built, and rudely fortified; but the convenience of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish

government, and by the caravans produce of Persia exceed one story: admit the free city elegant Venetian. Most of the houses which is a small handsome and square. These were erected in place, as were also stands the castle, consisting of curtains with two mortars posed unable to see is the palace of houses on the river who inhabited the purity and elegance.

Bassora, or Basra, joins the Persian Gulf. The population of Basra is 50,000, who carry on a trade; the bazars only one is worth the class of the inhabitants of the foreign trade chiefly exchange and their horses, exportation.

Mosul, which is and flourishing to about 35,000 inhabitants, Arabs, Jews, and Christians.

Diarbeker, the independent state not altogether suited of black stone, strength and solidity. Mosul is particularly manufacturing town. Manufacture of spirit; and the better character than their women with strangers with confidence.

The capital of inhabitants. The roofs, and few of between the Turkish have their own be stationary. Speak are all life, fire, and the watch for prechios, which are of

government, and it has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the caravans from Smyrna and Aleppo, and supplied also with the produce of Persia and India. The houses are generally large, but rarely exceed one story: they are 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 a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a small plantation of orange-trees. The bazars are tolerably handsome and spacious, filled with shops for all kinds of merchandisc. These were erected by the Persians, when they were in possession of the place, as were also the bagnios. In 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 so bad a state as to be supposed unable to support one firing. Below the castle, by the water-side, is the palace of the Turkish governor; and there are many summer-houses on the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians who inhabited this city under the khalifs were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Bassora, or Basra, which is situated below the part where the Tigris joins the Euphrates, is considered as the second city of the pashalic of Bagdad; but it has greatly declined from its former wealth and importance, though it still boasts of a population of 50,000, who carry on an extensive trade. The houses are meanly built; the bazars are miserable structures; and, of forty mosques, only one is worthy of the name. The Arabs form the most numerous class of the inhabitants; but the Armenians are the chief managers of the foreign trade. For the merchandisc of British India, they chiefly exchange bullion, pearls, copper, silk, dates, and gall-nuts; and their horses, which are strong and beautiful, are also articles of exportation.

Mosul, which is situated on a plain near the Tigris, was a handsome and flourishing town; but it is now visibly declining, though it still has about 35,000 inhabitants; among whom, beside Turks, are many Kourds, Arabs, Jews, and Armenians.

Diarbeker, the ancient Amida, was formerly the capital of an independent state, and is now the seat of a powerful pasha, who is not altogether subservient to the Porte. It is surrounded by a wall of black stone, supposed to be a Roman work, famous for its height and solidity. Many of the houses are very handsome; one mosque is particularly magnificent, and the castle is a great ornament to the town. Manufactures and commerce are prosecuted with some degree of spirit; and the inhabitants, who nearly amount to 40,000, bear a better character than those of most other Turkish towns. They indulge their women with a degree of liberty uncommon in the East, and treat strangers with courtesy and respect.

The capital of Kourdistan is Solymani, which contains about 15,000 inhabitants. The houses are built of mud and unburned bricks, with flat roofs, and few of them have two stories. The country is not only divided between the Turks and Persians, but among independent tribes, which have their own beys or emirs. The tribes are partly erratic and partly stationary. Speaking of the former, lieutenant Heude says, "They are all life, fire, and animation; robbers by profession, and constantly on the watch for prey. They have thick manly beards, with dark mustachios, which are often contrasted with keen eyes of liquid blue. They

are constantly armed with pistols, a dagger, and a well-tempered falchion; and the ruddy glow that bursts through an olive complexion finishes the picture, and stamps the daring outlaw as the healthful hardy mountaineer. The Kourdish ladies well suit their lords: mountain-nymphs in their youth, and lovely, laughing, nut-brown maids, they are Amazons in their middle age, and follow their husbands in all their wanderings. The Kourds are exceedingly fond of hunting the antelope, and commonly pursue at full speed over every kind of ground, without hesitation or mishap; their horses being in this respect certainly remarkable, that, unlike the greater part of the mountain-breeds we are acquainted with, they are commonly of the larger size, and as beautiful and spirited as they are indefatigable and sure."

Erzeroum is a large fortified town: but the houses are low, and constructed chiefly of wood. Of 80,000 inhabitants, not more than 14,500 are Armenians, though it is the chief town of their province. They have three celebrated monasteries near the city, and enjoy an identity of privilege with the Turks.

Bursa, or Prusa, was formerly the Turkish capital. With the suburbs, it is about six miles in circumference. It is romantically situated on the declivity of Mount Olympus; and a castle rises in the middle of the city over perpendicular rocks. A mosque built by Or-khan displays some degree of elegance: that of Bayezid is still more admired; and two shrines near the citadel, while they afford a delightful view of the country, excite the reverence of the Moslems. The town abounds in a remarkable manner with springs, some of which are salubrious and sanative. There are, in this neighbourhood, seven public baths naturally warm, which are much frequented; and it is said that the private baths amount to 3000. The inhabitants of the town are industrious, more particularly the Christian and Jewish parts of the population: they manufacture a great deal of silk, velvet, and gauze, and also colored linen; and their fruit, confectionary, and bread, are excellent.

Angora is a strong town, embosomed among mountains. It is nearly built, and has some trade, particularly in that yarn of which shallons are made, and in shawls of goat's hair, which rival those of Cashmir. It was near this town that Timour obtained his famous victory over Bayezid.

The south-eastern part of Asia Minor, called Caramania, is an extensive province, fertile, though mountainous, and enjoys the advantage of a fine climate: but it has few important towns; and the people in general are rude and uncivilised. Some of the provincial governors can scarcely be called subjects of the Porte, as they seem to pay only a nominal allegiance; and they find great difficulty in taming the spirit of the natives, many of whom subsist by robbery and piracy.

Smyrna is the most considerable town in Asia Minor. It contains about 130,000 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 other parts of this country, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus (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 luxuriant is nature in those countries, that in many places she triumphs over her forlorn condition.—Of Smyrna we may farther observe, that it is about

four miles in circuit approached by sea rise finely above the view by the built as many of necessaries of life, contribute to render when the heat, the a land-breeze is very unpleasant and mosquitoes.—The and in progressive brethren in Europe posed to shocking considered as secure

Tyria, though sloping borders of in a comfortable are extensively on Sardis, former huts; but the interesting remains kings, the other is

Opposite to the consequence of the portance, and rec 30,000. The im a decree of the flourished at this the number of s body of Greek in with a view of e force to protect A rels arose between half of the intin Greek armamen ensued between being victorious, and the greater

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four miles in circumference, and makes a very handsome appearance when approached by sea. Its domes and minarets, interspersed with cypresses, rise finely above the tiers of houses, and the summit of the hill varies the view by the display of a spacious fortress. The town is not so ill-built as many other Turkish towns are; and the abundance of all the necessaries of life, and the general civility even of the Moslem inhabitants, contribute to render this a desirable abode, except for three months, when the heat, though tempered by a westerly wind in the day, and by a land-breeze in the night, is scarcely endurable, and is attended with very unpleasant attacks from stinging flies and still more troublesome mosquitoes.—The Greeks in this city seemed to thrive and flourish in trade and in progressive education, when the intelligence of the revolt of their brethren in Europe reached the magistracy; but they were then exposed to shocking insults and sanguinary outrages, and cannot be considered as secure while the same cause of irritation subsists.

Tyria, though little known, is a well-built town, situated on the sloping borders of a very fertile valley. The inhabitants appear to live in a comfortable way, and some manufactures, particularly that of shoes, are extensively carried on.

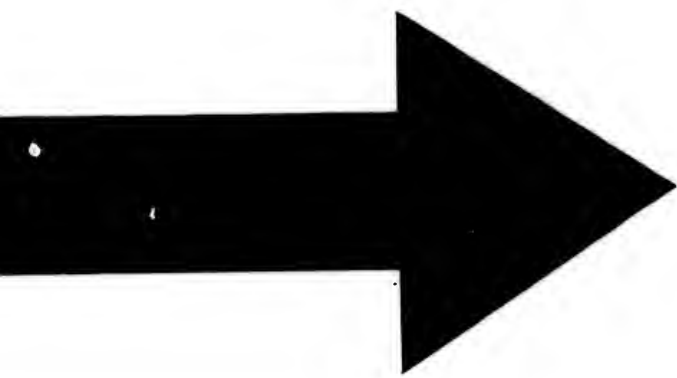
Sardis, formerly the capital of the Lydian realm, is reduced to a few huts; but the village and its neighbourhood may boast of two very interesting remains of antiquity. One is the burying-place of the Lydian kings, the other is the vast Ionic temple of Cybele.

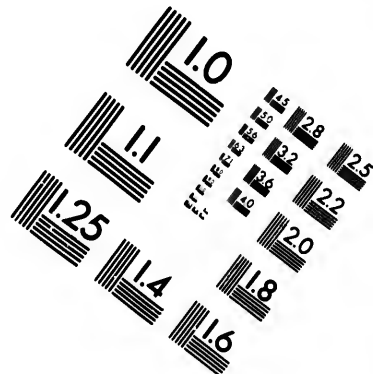
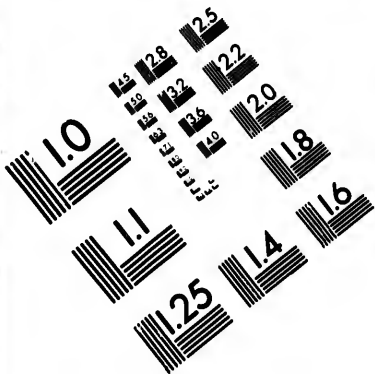
Opposite to the isle of Lesbos, was a village called Aivali, which, in consequence of the exertions of some enterprising Greeks, rose into importance, and received such accessions as nearly swelled its population to 30,000. The inhabitants were all Greeks, the Turks being excluded by a decree of the Porte. Various branches of manufactures and trade flourished at this place; and, in 1803, a college was erected, in which the number of scholars sometimes amounted to 350. But, when a body of Greek insurgents from Europe had landed in that part of Asia, with a view of extending the revolt, the pasha of Bursa sent a military force to protect Aivali, or rather to take possession of the place. Quarrels arose between the inhabitants and the insolent intruders; and one half of the intimidated population emigrated to different islands. A Greek armament afterwards appeared in the harbour, and conflicts ensued between the Turks and those who disembarked. The Greeks being victorious, the enraged Turks set fire to the town in their retreat, and the greater part became a heap of ruins.

Konieh (formerly Iconium) has an "imposing appearance (says captain Kinneir) from the number and size of its public buildings; but these stately edifices are crumbling into ruins, while the houses of the inhabitants consist of huts built of sun-dried bricks, and hovels thatched with reeds. The chief ornaments of the city are its mosques, of which there are twelve large and a hundred small. The colleges are also numerous, but only one is now inhabited. Some of the gates of these old colleges are of singular beauty; they are formed entirely of marble, adorned with a profusion of fret-work and fine entablatures in the Moresco fashion."—The inhabitants make good carpets, and prepare blue and yellow leather: they also send out cotton and wool. They boast of the sanctity of their town, because it contains the tomb of a revered saint, and consequently attracts a number of Mohammedan pilgrims.

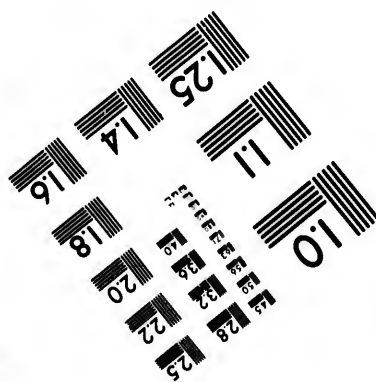
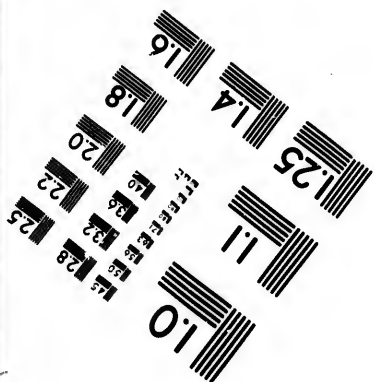
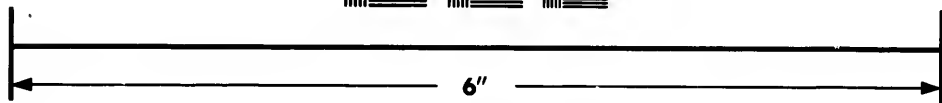
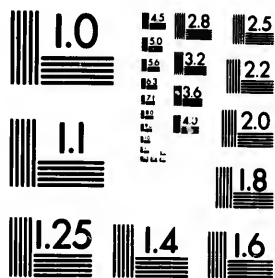
Damascus is still a flourishing city. It stands (says Mr. Buckingham) "on the western edge of a fine plain, having a chain of hills pressing close upon it to the north-west. The buildings being constructed chiefly of stone below and bricks of a light yellow above, while the principal







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public edifices are painted in the gayest colors, the aspect of the whole is light and airy in the extreme. The castle, with its outer court and massive walls, and the great and splendid mosque near the centre of the city, look imposing by their magnitude, and the light and tapering minarets that rise in every quarter of the town, give a peculiar character of elegance to the whole."—The city (says Mr. Legh) "is long and narrow, and the houses, built of mud bricks, have an exterior extremely mean, which little corresponds with the interior magnificence. The floors of the rooms are generally inlaid with white and variegated marble, the windows are frequently of stained glass, and the walls are beautifully painted in fresco, with representations, not of flowers or arabesques, but of the most curious and intricate angular patterns and mathematical figures."—This place is famous for its coffee-houses, built on the banks of the Barrada, and consisting of a high pavilion roof, supported by wooden pillars. Smoking is a part of the recreation at these houses, and another amusement is story-telling. The sword-blades for which Damascus was formerly so celebrated, have yielded to an inferior manufacture: but the silk and cotton commodities are still in great request, and the cabinet work is represented as admirable. The population is about 125,000.

Said, the ancient Sidon, has a tolerable harbour, but is not populous, and its trade has been in a great measure transferred to Bayrout (Berytus), which has about 12,000 inhabitants, many of whom (perhaps the most industrious of all) are Druses;—a circumstance which prompts us to take transient notice of a remarkable community. These half-Christians reside upon and about Mount Lebanon; they are subject to an emir, who is tributary to the Turks, but rules in an independent manner. Their seat of government is Dair-al-Kamar, where a sort of national council is holden. Their mountainous villages, being strong by nature, are not fortified by art. They subsist chiefly by the culture of silk and cotton. The general opinion is, that they are the descendants of parties of crusaders, who, instead of returning to Europe, established their residence among the Syrian mountains. In their persons they are for the most part fair, and their women, of whom they are excessively jealous, are said to be very handsome. The male dress is rich and picturesque; and the women, to the elegance of their clothing, add the ornament of a silver horn, which, affixed to the crown, the right or the left side of the head, respectively indicates a virgin, a married woman, and a widow.

Tyre, or Sur, 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; but the circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half, and Christians and Mohammedans only make up the number of about five hundred.

St. John d'Acre (Ptolemais), is a considerable town in point of population and of trade. It was for many years the seat of the pasha Al-Gezzar, who, though a most inhuman tyrant, adorned the place with fine public buildings, and promoted in some respects the interest and welfare of the people.

Jerusalem contains a stately temple, or rather a groupe of mosques, erected at different times on the spot which is supposed to have been formerly ennobled by Solomon's magnificent structure. Al Akaa, one of the number, consists of seven naves: at the end of the central one is a handsome cupola: seven arches slightly pointed, resting on cylindrical pillars, support this nave. The cupola has two rows of windows, and is embellished with arabesque painting and gilding. Al-Sakhara,

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or the mosque of Omar, is an octagonal edifice, surmounted by an admired cupola, and entered by four gates, before one of which is a fine portico in the Corinthian style. The exterior is incrusted with marble to a considerable height: the remainder is faced with small bricks of various colors. The houses of this city, says the vicomte de Chateaubriand, are heavy square masses, very low, with scarcely any windows; they have terraces on the top, and look like prisons or sepulchres. The whole would appear to the eye as an uninterrupted level, if the steeples and the minarets, the summits of a few cypresses, and the clumps of nopals, did not break the uniformity of the view.—By others who have visited this sacred spot, the town is described as an ill-built, gloomy, dirty place of residence, unenlivened by open-hearted sociability or true comfort. The population does not exceed 25,000.

[ANTIQUITIES.] The remains of ancient edifices and monuments in Asiatic Turkey 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 of 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, it will be sufficient to select some of the most striking.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna contains some noble and beautiful antiquities. The same may be said of Aleppo, and many 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 by the name of a brook which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble, built in honor of Augustus Cæsar, at Milasso in Caria, and a few structures of the same kind in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities which are still entire; and three theatres of white marble, with a fine circus near Laodicea, now Latakia, have suffered little injury from time or barbarism.

Some ruins, which are still to be seen at Hilleh, 50 miles from Bagdad, are supposed to be the remains of the famed city of Babylon. A spacious and lofty pyramid, and one of smaller dimensions, crowned with a small square tower, have been particularly described: but neither the time of their erection, nor the nation which raised them, can be ascertained; and all the late deductions and conclusions on this subject are as fanciful and visionary as the dreams with regard to Troy.

Baalbec is situated on a rising plain, between Tripoli 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 the Sun 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 by iron pins without cement. Some of these pins are a foot long, and a foot in

diameter; and the sordid Turks frequently 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 is 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 orders, but disfigured with Turkish mosques and houses. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionally 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 as modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his successors may have rebuilt some parts 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. Baalbec is at present a small town, encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 2000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the scattered ruins. A free-stone quarry in the neighbourhood furnished the stones for the body of the temple; and one stone, 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 quarry of coarse white marble, 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, 150 miles to the south-east of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity. The temple of the Sun is a mere ruin, but the access to it is through a vast number of Corinthian columns of white marble. Superb arches, 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 traded with the Romans and the western nations, for the merchandise and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered condition, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which have converted the most fertile tracts into barren deserts. The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Baalbec, owes its origin 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 murdered her principal no-

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bles, and, among others, Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of her treasures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majestic ruins of which have been mentioned. The Palmyrene inscriptions do not reach above the Christian era, 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 proportion of its columns, are by no means equal to those of Baalbec.

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 certainty to their original founders; so great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for a long course of ages. It is, indeed, easy to pronounce whether the style of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracenic; 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 razed to the ground, and rebuilt, that no scene of our Redeemer's life and sufferings can be ascertained; and yet those ecclesiastics subsist by their forgeries, and by pretending to guide travelers 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 useless for a modern traveler 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 celebrated 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 have inhabited the vast country known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. The Turks, a nation belonging to this race, extended their conquests under various leaders, and during several centuries, from the shore of the Caspian to the Dardanelles. As many of them were long resident in the capacity of body-guards at the Saracen court, they embraced the doctrine of Mohammed, and acted for a long time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief residence was in the neighbourhood of Mount Caucasus, whence they removed into Armenia; and, after being employed as mercenaries by the sultans of Persia, they seized that kingdom about the year 1037, and spread their ravages over the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts, they never were without a pretence for invading the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were some-

times commanded by very able generals. On the declension of the Saracen empire, they made themselves masters of Palestine; and the visiting of the holy city of Jerusalem being then deemed part of the duty of Christians, 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.

It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progress of the Christians than of the Turks; and though, after oceans of blood were spilled, a Christian kingdom was erected at Jerusalem, under Godfrey of Bouillon, neither he nor his successors possessed any real power of maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1299, had extended their dominions on every side, and gained possession, under Othman, of some of the finest provinces in Asia, of Nice, and Prusa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital. He, as it were, first embodied them into a nation: hence they took the name of Othmans from that leader, who was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes recorded in history. About the year 1357 they passed the Hellespont, and gained an establishment in Europe; and Amurath, or Morad, settled the seat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in 1360: under him the order of Janisaries took its rise. Such were their conquests, that Bajazet, or Bayezid, after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigismund, laid siege to Constantinople, in the hope of subjecting all the Greek empire. His greatness and insolence provoked Timour, who had recently returned from his Eastern conquests, to declare war against him. A decisive battle was fought between those rival conquerors, in Natolia, when Bayezid was defeated and made prisoner, but not (as is generally supposed) shut up in an iron cage.

The successors of Timour, by declaring war against each other, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and, though their career was checked by the valor 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, Mohammed II. took Constantinople in 1453. Thus, after an existence of eleven centuries, from its commencement under Constantine the Great, ended the Greek empire: an event long foreseen, and occasioned by many causes; the chief of which were 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." As the Turks, when they extended their conquests, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to subjection, the descendants of the ancient Greeks still exist, as we have already observed, and, though under grievous oppressions, profess Christianity under their own patriarchs of Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem; and the Armenians have three patriarchs, who are more opulent than the Greek prelates, because their people are more conversant in trade.

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.

Mohammed died in 1481, and was succeeded by Bayezid II., who carried on war against the Hungarians and Venetians as well as in Persia and Egypt. This prince, being tortured by the gout, became indolent,

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He was also harassed by family differences, and, at last, by order of his second son Selim, was poisoned by a Jewish physician. Selim afterwards ordered his eldest brother Ahmed to be strangled, with many other princes of his family. 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 conflicts, he annexed to his own dominions, in 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was succeeded in 1520 by his son Solyman 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. His subsequent reign was almost a continual war with the Christian powers; and he was generally successful, both by sea and land. He took Buda, the metropolis of Hungary, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives in 1526, and two years afterwards advanced into Austria, and besieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V. He is considered 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 a dreadful 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 from the Moors. He was succeeded in 1575 by his son, Morad III., who forced the Persians to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. Mohammed III. ascended the throne in 1595. The memory of this prince is infamously 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 1603. Though his successor Ahmed was defeated by the Persians, he forced the Austrians to agree to a treaty in 1606, and to consent that he should keep what he possessed in Hungary. Mustafa, who succeeded in 1617, was soon deposed for his imbecility and incapacity; and his nephew Osman, a prince of great spirit, who was only in the thirteenth year of his age, was invested with the supremacy. Being unsuccessful against the Polanders, he was put to death by the Janisaries, whose power he intended to reduce. Morad IV. succeeded in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Persians. His brother, Ibrahim, succeeded him in 1640; a worthless prince, who was strangled by the Janisaries in 1648. His successor, Mohammed IV., was well served by his grand vizir Cuperli. He took the island of Candia from the Venetians, and also met with success in Poland: but, when he had attempted the reduction of the Austrian capital, he was repelled with severe loss and disgrace. In 1687, he was imprisoned by his discontented subjects, and succeeded by his brother, Solyman II.

The Turks were unsuccessful in their wars during his reign, and that of his brother, Ahmed II.; and Mustafa II., who ascended the throne in 1695, was defeated by prince Eugene. He was deposed in 1702, his miter was beheaded, and his brother Ahmed III. mounted the throne. This was the prince who gave shelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden, and put an end to a war with the Russians, by a peace concluded near the Pruth. When the Russian troops were surrounded without hopes of escape, the czarina inclined the grand vizir to peace, by a present of all the money, plate, and jewels, that were in the camp; and

advantageous terms were obtained by the Turks. Ahmed had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Christian powers. The scene of action was transferred to Hungary, where prince Eugene gave so many defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a disgraceful peace at Passarowitz, in 1718. During a war with the Persians, the populace demanded the heads of the vizir, the chief admiral, and secretary, which were accordingly stricken off: the sultan also was deposed, and Mahmoud advanced to the throne. He was unsuccessful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at last obliged to recognise that usurper as king of Persia. He was engaged in a war with the Imperialists and Russians: against the former he was victorious; but the success of the latter, which threatened Constantinople itself, constrained him to agree to a hasty treaty with the emperor, and also to a pacification with the Russians. He died in 1754. The reign of Osman III. was short and unimportant. He died in 1757, and was succeeded by his brother Mustafa III., who engaged in a war with the Russians, of which some account has been given in the history of their country. In the course of this war, a Russian fleet sailed to the Morea, and a descent was made on the southern coast. 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 in motion. The open country was quickly over-run, while the Russian ships, that had been separated, arrived successively, and landed their men in different places, where every small detachment soon swelled into a little army. The Greeks 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 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 pasha of Bosnia. This general recovered all the northern part of the peninsula as soon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks who were found in arms, or out of their villages, were instantly put to death. The invaders were now driven back to their ships; but, about the same time, another Russian squadron, commanded by admiral Elphinston, arrived from England. The Turkish fleet also appeared, and an obstinate engagement ensued in the channel of Scio. The Turks had fifteen ships of the line, from sixty to ninety guns, beside smaller vessels; the Russians had only ten ships of the line, and five frigates. Admiral Spiritoff encountered the principal Turkish ship; and, when the two vessels were in a manner locked together, the Russians, by throwing hand-grenades from the tops, set the hostilship on fire; and, as they could not now be disentangled, both ships were equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumstanced, without a possibility of succour, both at length blew up. The commanders and principal officers were saved; but the crews were almost totally lost. The dreadful fate of these ships, as well as the danger to those that were near them, produced a kind of

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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 Turks cut their cables, and ran into the bay of Chesme: the Russians surrounded them thus closely pent up, and in the night some fire-ships were introduced, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Englishman in the Russian service. The fire took place so effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet was destroyed, except one man of war and a few galleys, that were towed off by the Russians; 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.

After a most unfortunate war on the side of the Turks, peace was concluded between them and the Russians, on the 21st of July, 1774, a few months after the accession of Abdoulhamed; and, for many years, no fresh rupture occurred, though some sources of discord were left open. The pretensions of Catharine, the aspiring empress, at length rekindled the flames of hostility; and Joseph II. took part in the war, in the hope of sharing valuable spoils. While the storm impended over him, the sultan died. He had filled the throne of Constantinople without disgracing his country, and appears to have been a mild and humane monarch. His prime minister Yusef, during the three last years of his life, though by no means consistently great, must be allowed to have merited 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 Transylvania.

In the progress of the war, Choczim and Oczakoff surrendered to the arms of Russia, and the Austrians took Belgrade. Bucharest also submitted, and Bender was surrendered. The garrison of Orsova, indeed, made an obstinate resistance. Marshal Laudohn was obliged to raise the siege, but it was renewed, and the place was taken.

The war then languished on the part of the Austrians, and, in August 1790, a treaty was concluded with the Porte, by which the emperor restored all the places he had conquered. On the part of Russia, however, hostilities were continued, and several important victories were obtained by the troops of the czarina.

During the war, 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 into reasonable terms of peace. Catharine haughtily replied to the first applications of the English minister,—"The British court shall 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 Oczakoff, with the district extending from the Bog to the Niester; nearly on which terms a peace was concluded on the 11th of August, 1791. The fortress of Oczakoff was certainly of considerable importance to Russia, which, by this cession, obtained the secure and undisturbed possession of the Crimea.

The treacherous and unjust invasion of Egypt, by the French, without even the pretence that the Porte had given them any offence, provoked

the Turks to declare war against France; but of the hostilities which took place between these powers, and which were nearly confined to the attack of Egypt, and some towns in Syria, an account is given in another part of this work.

When, by the aid and exertions of a British force, the French had been compelled to evacuate Egypt, and Bonaparté, returning to France, had usurped the government, the Porte not only became reconciled to France, but was influenced by the intrigues of Napoleon's emissaries; and, on this pretence, the emperor Alexander sent an army to invade the Turkish provinces. The British cabinet thought it expedient to counteract the schemes of France, and attempted to effect an accommodation between the belligerent powers. With this view, admiral Duckworth was sent, in 1807, with seven sail of the line, to force the Dardanelles, and bombard Constantinople, if certain terms should not be acceded to by the Turkish government. The expedition, however, did not prove successful. The fleet, indeed, passed the Dardanelles, and anchored within about eight miles of the city. But the weather being unfavorable, and the Turks protracting the negotiation, and at the same time having made the most formidable preparations for defence, it was judged advisable to retire. This retreat was attended with considerable loss. One ship was stricken by a granite shot of six hundred weight, which nearly cut through the main mast, and killed a number of men.

In the same year, an English armament, under general Fraser, sailed to Egypt. The troops took Alexandria, but failed in an attempt on Rosetta. The English held the former city for some months; but, when a formidable force had been collected to expel them, the commander sent a flag of truce, announcing that, on the delivery of the British prisoners, the army under his command should evacuate the country. This condition was immediately accepted.

By the failure of these expeditions, the influence of France over the divan was materially strengthened, and Sebastiani, the French agent, was consulted on almost every emergency, and obtained almost the entire direction of the affairs of the Porte, while Great-Britain met with a new enemy. In the mean time the Russians, advancing in considerable strength, over-ran Moldavia and Walachia, and proceeded toward the Danube. They at the same time had, on the south of that river, allies who co-operated with great activity and effect. These were the Servians, who had declared themselves an independent nation, and, under their leader Czerni George, defeated the Turks in several encounters. A Russian fleet cut off the communication between the Black Sea and Constantinople, and deprived that city of the requisite supplies. These accumulated misfortunes produced in the capital great discontents, which were increased by the dissatisfaction of the soldiery, on account of the introduction of a new system of dress and tactics agreeing with the European mode, of which several of the ministers, and more particularly the sultan Selim, had been the supporters. In May 1807, the Janisaries crowded from all quarters, intent upon suppressing an institution by which their consequence was so much diminished. They were soon joined by the mufti; and a proposition was made that the grand-signor should issue a decree, abolishing the new discipline. The sultan at first refused, and attempted to defend the seraglio; but, the torrent proving irresistible, he was at length compelled to abdicate the throne on the 29th of May, and his cousin Mustafa was proclaimed emperor.

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Janisaries, in whose attachment to him he had no reason to confide. His weakness and their tyranny furnished an aspiring officer with a pretence for interfering in the administration. Mustafa, styled Bairactar or the standard-bearer, had risen from the dishonorable meanness of piracy to the dignified station of pasha of Rudshuck. Like most of those who have obtained high offices in Turkey, he was rude and illiterate; but his enterprising spirit and vigor of mind supplied the deficiency of education, and qualified him for daring projects. With 35,000 men, of whom the majority were Albanians, he advanced to reform or to seize the government; and, encamping near the walls of Constantinople, he assembled the most distinguished public characters, and procured their assent to the gradual suppression of the order of Janisaries. While the grand-signor slumbered on his throne, the bold general was for several months in full possession of the supreme power. He at length resolved to act more decisively, and dethrone the prince by whom his patron Selim had been supplanted. On his approach to the palace, he found the gates closed and the guard under arms, and ordered an immediate assault. The contest was short; but the interval was fatal to Selim, who was instantly strangled by the command of the reigning prince, that he might not be restored to the throne. When Bairactar had forced the gates, he desired to see the imprisoned sultan. "There he is!" said the attendants, producing the body of the murdered prince. The pasha shed tears at the sight; but his grief was quickly absorbed in indignation and resentment. He rushed into the presence-chamber, drew Mustafa from his throne, and announced the elevation of his younger brother Mahmoud. The leaders of the former insurrection were put to death: order and tranquillity were fully restored by a rigorous police; and even the Janisaries were obliged to acquiesce in the away of the new emperor, and the administration of his vizir Bairactar. Concluding that they were reconciled to the change, he proposed a grand entertainment, at which they met the provincial troops, and outwardly abjured all animosities. He was not aware of their profound dissimulation. A numerous body, at night, set fire to the vizir's habitation; and, when he had fled to a powder-magazine, he desperately blew himself up. Slaughter and conflagration raged for several days in the city; and the contest ended in the triumph of the Janisaries. During these dreadful commotions, the friends of Mahmoud murdered the deposed sultan Mustafa, without giving offence to the victorious soldiers, who recognised the pretensions of the reigning emperor.

In the mean time, the war with the Russians continued, though peace had been restored between the Turkish and British nations. The campaign of the year 1808 was more favorable to the troops of Mahmoud than to the Russians or the Servians; and, in the two succeeding years, the war bore a doubtful complexion: but, in 1811, the success of the invaders diffused alarm even to the gates of Constantinople. Alexander would probably have acted with an increase of vigor, if the irruption of the French into his country had not induced him to listen to the sultan's overtures; and a treaty was concluded in 1812, by which the Pruth was declared to be the boundary of the two empires.

After many years of peace, the sultan was involved in an unexpected war. As the Carbonari stimulated the Neapolitans to an insurrection, the Heteria, a similar society, impelled by its persuasions the Greeks to arms. The patience of these oppressed Christians seemed to be at length exhausted; and no other remedy than an insurrection was recommended by those who had the greatest influence over the people, though some

cautious and timid persons hinted, that the remedy might be worse than the disease. The insurgent leaders began their operations in Moldavia, in 1821, under the auspices of Alexander Ypsilanti; but their warlike attempts tended only to inflame the rage of the grand-signor, who immediately ordered a great number of unoffending Greeks to be put to death, at Constantinople, and in other parts of his dominions.

From that time to the present year (1826), the contest has raged with little intermission. The Greeks have organised an independent government, framed a constitution on judicious principles, and established more regular courts of judicature, than they had before under the captains or princes of the country, the primates or village chiefs, and the priests: but their internal dissensions have obstructed the progress of their arms, though they have obtained important advantages in naval actions, and also evinced their spirit in the field. They have repeatedly applied to Great-Britain, and to the continental courts, for such aid as may save them from extirpation; but their infidel enemies, their inhuman oppressors, have had sufficient influence (because the grand-signor is a legitimate prince) to secure the neutrality of the Christian powers.

Being desirous of strengthening his military force by an adoption of European tactics, the sultan lately ordered the regiments of Janisaries to be newly disciplined; but they were so unwilling to exchange their old habits for a system pursued by those whom they detested, that they peremptorily refused to obey the imperial mandate. He wreaked his vengeance upon a great number of them by the cruelty of massacre, and suppressed that martial body which had long constituted the chief defence of the empire.

Mahmoud II., born in 1785, was proclaimed emperor in 1808. As his eldest son is dead, Solyman, born in 1817, is his presumptive heir; but, if the father should die while this prince is a minor, the strict order of succession, in all probability, will not be observed.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO ASIATIC TURKEY.

THE greater part of the Grecian islands in the Archipelago are considered by geographers as situated in Europe; but those which are very near to the Asiatic coast, and also Cyprus in the Levant or Eastern Sea, must be referred to Asia.

METELIN, the ancient LESBOS, the principal city of which was Mytilene, is situated to the north of the gulf of Smyrna, about ten miles from the coast of Asia. It is about forty miles long and twenty-four broad. Its mountainous appearance is pleasingly diversified with inlets of the sea, and plantations of the vine, olive, and myrtle. Its wine was anciently, and is still, in high estimation. It is famous for having been the native country of Sappho. The ancient Lesbians were accused of dissolute manners; and the modern inhabitants 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 wine, oil, and silk, but scarcely any corn. It was inhabited, in 1821, by 100,000 persons, chiefly Greeks, who carried on manufactures of silk, velvet, gold and silver stuffs, and appeared to enjoy the comforts of life. The women of this and other Greek islands have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty. Dr. Chandler, when he

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visited Scio above fifty years ago, was delighted with the appearance, manners, and industry, of the female inhabitants. He 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 groupes. 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 colors; 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 have been born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and show a little square house, which they call Homer's school." This island suffered dreadfully in 1821, merely on account of a partial and trifling insurrection. A Turkish armament made a descent near the chief town; and the infidels, having quickly overpowered all resistance, commenced a course of murder and devastation. The town was set on fire; its churches and monasteries, its celebrated college, and its well-built houses, were reduced to a heap of ruins. Many thousands of both sexes and of all ages were massacred: thousands of women and girls were carried off to be sold as slaves; and, while a considerable number escaped to other islands, those who remained were involved in the most severe distress.

SAMOS lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of Asia-Minor, about seven miles from the continent. It is thirty miles long, and ten broad. The inhabitants are nearly all Greeks. The women are notorious for their total want of beauty; in this forming a remarkable exception to the other Greek isles. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request; and the island also produces wool, oil, and silk. It is supposed to have been the native country of Juno: and the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city of Samos, are viewed by antiquaries with admiration.

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.

STANCHIO, the ancient Cos, near the coast of Asia-Minor, is about twenty-five miles long and ten broad. It abounds with cypress and turpentine trees, and a variety of medicinal plants. It 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.

RHODES is distant about twenty miles from the continent, and is about thirty-six miles long and fifteen broad. The population is computed at 30,000. This island is healthful and pleasant, and abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life. The chief town 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 is the grand signor's principal arsenal for shipping, and the place is esteemed among the most considerable 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 are said to have 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 1308, but lost it to them in 1522, after a brave defence, and retired to Malta. The remains of the palace of the grand master have an air of magnificence, and serve to show how luxuriously and splendidly the knights lived.

CYPRUS is situated at the distance of 35 miles from the Syrian coast: its length is 135 miles, and its breadth fifty. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess; and, during the time of the crusades, it was a rich flourishing kingdom, inhabited by Christians. It was seized by Richard Cœur-de-Lion, in revenge for the treachery of its sovereign: but he soon transferred it to Guy de Lusignan. On the death of James, its last king, without issue, in 1477, the Venetians, who were then in the zenith of their power, took possession of the island: but, in 1572, they were compelled by the Turks to relinquish it. The natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it. It produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made: cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated; and the printed articles of that description are in great request, as are also the carpets which are here manufactured. The mines of copper, from which the island probably derived its name, are no longer found: but it may be presumed that the two chains of mountains which traverse the country contain a much greater variety of mineral treasures than the modern inhabitants have discovered, who appear to have found little beside jasper, agate, and rock crystal, called the Paphian diamond. It is remarkable that this island is destitute of rivers, except such as do not flow in the summer; and its harbours are said to be more sultry than any others in the Levant.

Famagusta, the ancient metropolis of this fine island, has a good harbour. The present capital, Nicosia, stands in the interior of the country, and is the see of an archbishop. The late prelate, Cyprian, was a worthy and respectable man, who, because the Greeks of Europe were in a state of revolt, was treacherously invited to the palace of the Turkish governor, on pretence of urgent business, and murdered. Many other clergymen were put to death at the same time, and the gentry and merchants were treated with similar cruelty. Confiscation and rapine ensued, and the island was ravaged with brutal fury.

ARABIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1350	} between	{ 36 and 58 east longitude.	} 825,000
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NAME.] IT is remarkable that this country has always preserved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally said, signifies a robber,

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or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the desert; but we may readily conclude that the word did not originally signify a thief, being only used in this sense after the people of that territory became thieves.

BOUNDARIES.] Arabia is bounded by Turkey, on the north; by the Persian gulf and the Arabian Sea, on the east; by the Indian ocean, to the southward; and by the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the west. It forms three grand divisions,—*Petraea*, *Deserta*, and *Felix*, the Rocky, the Desert, and the Happy Arabia; out of which Niebuhr has made eight—the countries of Yemen, Hadramant, and Oman, the states bordering on the Persian gulf, Lachsa, Nejed, Hejaz, and Mount Sinai.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, in Arabia Petraea, and those called Gibel al Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most remarkable.

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 Ras-al-Gat and Mozandon.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] As a considerable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, 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 way diversified than by plains covered with sand, and mountains made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day-time. But the southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea-coast, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, frankincense, spikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamom, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other kinds of fruit; 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: but 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 the stomach into the throat, by which means they can travel six or eight days without water. A camel usually carries 800 pounds' weight upon its back, which is not taken off during the whole journey; for it naturally kneels down to rest, and in due time rises with its 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 reach 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 form as much as for their swiftness and spirit. The finest breed is in the territory of Yemen.

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 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 very extensive.

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 these 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 occurred.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DRESS.] The Arabians 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, 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 one place to another with their flocks and herds.

The Arabians, in general, are habitual thieves. These robbers, headed by a captain, traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, and assault and plunder the caravans; and, on the sea-coast, the people are mere pirates, capturing every vessel which they can master, of whatever nation. The habit of a roving Arab is a kind of blue shirt, tied about him with a white sash or girdle; and some have a vest of furs or sheepskins over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings, and have a cap or turban. 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 Mohammedans, the Arabs eat all sorts 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, form their usual drink: they have no strong liquors.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Among the cities of Arabia Felix, Mecca and Medina deserve particular notice. Mecca is situated in a very narrow valley; its principal streets are rendered in some degree handsome, by the pretty fronts of the houses, which are built of stone, and consist in general of three stories. The rooms are well-proportioned, long, broad, and lofty, and have, beside large windows and balconies, a row of small windows. The roofs form terraces, surrounded with a wall and a railing of red and white bricks. The inhabitants are dull melancholy beings, deficient in talent, knowledge, and industry; and their resources from nature are so scanty, that, if the pilgrimages of the Moslems should cease, the place would, in all probability, soon be depopulated.

The famous temple or mosque stands near the middle of the city; and its great court forms a parallelogram of about 536 feet by 356, surrounded by a double piazza, the fronts of the two longer sides presenting thirty-six arches, and the two shorter sides twenty-four, slightly pointed, supported by columns of greyish marble. Each side is composed of two naves, formed by a triple row of arches; and, in the whole, there may be

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reckoned more than 500 columns and pilasters. Some of the capitals of the pillars are exquisitely carved, and few of them are mean or unhand-some. The greatest curiosity of the place, and the only part which lays claim to high antiquity, is the Kaaba, which is dignified with the appellation of the house of God. This is a quadrilateral tower, thirty-four feet high, and its sides vary from twenty-nine to thirty-eight feet in length. The keepers of this holy place boast of the possession of a stone, which (they say) was brought from heaven by the angel Gabriel, and became black from being touched by an impure woman. This is in fact, a fragment of volcanic basalt, sprinkled about its circumference with small pointed and colored crystals, and varied with red feldspath on a dark ground like coal. The interior of the Kaaba consists simply of a room or hall, with two wooden pillars, which, as well as the walls, are covered with rose-colored silk, which is variegated by flowers embroidered in silver. This covering is changed for a new one by every sultan on his accession; but the black cloth which covers the whole building, and is called the *tob* or shirt, is annually renewed. Another appendage of the temple is the well of Zemzem, which supplies the pilgrims with an abundance of warm water. The keeper of this well is next in rank to the *sherif* or prince of Mecca: he is called the *poisoner*, though the water is said to be wholesome; but he is so styled, because he is sometimes ordered or bribed to send troublesome or obnoxious men out of the world by giving them a draught of this water, contaminated by some deleterious infusion.

At Medina, a poor town distant about fifty miles from the Red Sea, is a stately mosque, called the *Most Holy* by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of their prophet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue. The story of the suspension of this coffin between heaven and earth by the power of a loadstone, is a mere fiction. Over its foot is a rich golden crescent, curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones. To this spot the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

The other principal cities of Arabia are Sanaa, Mocha, Jemma, Mascat, and Lachsa. Sanaa is considered as the capital of Yemen, or Arabia Felix. It has a castle, and contains a number of mosques and several palaces. 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 the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in a variety of commodities.

Mocha is well-built: the houses are lofty, and are, with the walls and forts, covered with chinam or stucco, which imparts to them a dazzling whiteness. The harbour is semicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are several handsome mosques in the city. Its exports chiefly consist of coffee, gum Arabic, myrrh, and frankincense.

Jemma 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, &c., and cloth, iron, furs, and other articles, being transmitted from Europe by the way of Cairo. The town is well-built, and occupied by about 5000 persons.

Mascat is a considerable town, with an excellent harbour, and has been, from early times, a mart for Arabia, Persia, and the Indies. It was taken by the Portuguese in 1508, and retained by them during a century and a half; but it is now governed by an independent prince. English ships from Hindoostan carry on a trade with this town.

Lachsa is a large and well-built town, situated near a rapid stream, which falls into a bay opposite to the isl. of Bahrein, celebrated for the

pearl fishery. Here we may observe, that the ruins of Petra, the ancient capital of Arabia Petræa, have been lately discovered in the form of rocky excavations, adorned with sculpture, containing the remains of a temple, a street of tombs, &c.

In the Arabian towns few manufactures are established; for a race more unskilful in the mechanic arts than the inhabitants are, cannot easily be found. Few of them can even make their own slippers or sandals, or perform those operations which are most common in other countries. Yet, with the aid of foreigners, the linen manufacture is carried on in some places; articles in glass are fabricated; good carpets and tent-covers are made of the hair of camels; and, by the Jewish artisans who are incorporated with the natives, various kinds of work in gold and silver are produced with some degree of skill.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS.] Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are styled sheiks and imams, both of them including the offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the khalifs of the Saracens. These princes 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 who pass through their country, from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no regular standing militia; but their sheiks command both the persons and purses of their subjects, as the necessity of affairs may seem to require.

RELIGION.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mohammed their countryman. Many of the wandering Arabs are still little different from Pagans; but in general they profess the doctrines of their pseudo-prophet.

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 generally ignorant: yet it is said that some of them retain that poetic talent by which their ancestors were distinguished. The vulgar language used is the Arabesque, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over a great part of the East, from Egypt to Hindoostan. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which by the people of the East is 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 the Moslems 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 it consists 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, even if we include among these the metaphorical expressions and images of their poets, the assertion is very remote from the truth. The Lord's Prayer in Arabic is as follows:

Abuna elladhi fi-ssamwat; jethaddas esmâc; tati malacutac: taouri masebiatic, cama fi-ssama; kedalec ala lardh aating chobzena kefatna iaium beiaum; wagsor lena donubena wachataina, cama nogfor nachna lemen aca doina; wala tadalchalna jihajarib; laken mejjina me nescherir.

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

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a great part of their history, that of the Arabs is entirely composed of their conquests or independence. The Arabs are the descendants of Ishmael, of whose posterity it was foretold, that they should be invincible, "have their hands against every man, and every man's hands against them." They are at present, and have remained from the remotest ages, during the various conquests of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. Toward the north, and on the coast 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 singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mohammed, who was born at Mecca 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 subtle genius, like those of the same country, and possessed a degree of enterprise and ambition peculiar to himself, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed in the early part of his life, by his uncle, Abou-Taleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in that capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, on whose death he married his widow, Khadija, and by her means possessed both great wealth and a numerous family. During his peregrinations, he had observed the great variety of sects in religion, whose mutual hatred was strong and inveterate, though, at the same time, there were many particulars in which the greater part of them 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 had hitherto 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 Mohammed was taken to her bed. This monk was qualified, by his learning, to supply the defects which his master, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, would 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 Mohammed turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often subject to fits of epilepsy, a disease which those whom it afflicts are desirous of concealing. He therefore declared, that these fits were trances into which he was miraculously thrown, and that he was then instructed in the divine 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 the reputation of superior sanctity. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the numbers and enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet sent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already hinted, he did not lay the foundation of his system on so narrow a scale, as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthusiastic, was enlarged by the survey of distant regions, whose manners and religion he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that his system 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 addicted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jesus Christ was equal to God the Father, as is declared in the Athanasian creed. Egypt and Arabia abounded with Jews, who had fled into those parts of the world from the persecution of such princes as had 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 new system was exactly suited to these three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moses and 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 more ample commission. He had ordered 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. God, said the artful impostor, 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 principal articles of Mohammed'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* by way of eminence, as we say the Bible, which means the Book. While the common people adopted his system, some of those who were less blind and credulous resolved to expose and punish the impostor; but he made his escape to Medina, where he was received with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622nd year of Christ, the fifty-fourth year of his age, and the tenth of his ministry, his followers compute their time; and the era is called, in Arabic, *Hegira* or *Hejra*, i. e. the Flight.

Mohammed, 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 in Arabia 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 Moslems, or believers. In a word, the contagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Persia; and Mohammed, from a deceitful hypocrite, became a powerful monarch. He was proclaimed king at Medina, in 627; and, after subduing part of Arabia and Syria, died in 632.

As the propagation of religion by the sword formed a part of the Mohammedan system, the fanaticism which it inspired had a rapid effect, when every warrior thought himself a saint. Abou-Beker, the father of Mohammed's wife, who was chosen *khalif* (that is, successor

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to the prophet), in preference to Ali, the cousin and son-in-law of the deceased adventurer, was intent upon the reduction of Syria, when he died in the third year of his reign. Omar prosecuted with great vigor the schemes of conversion and of conquest. He subdued Syria and Palestine, invaded Persia with success, and carried his victorious arms into Egypt; but was murdered in his career of barbarous triumph by a Persian slave. Othman was equally successful in his martial enterprises; and his fate was similar to that of Omar. Ali was then called to the throne, by the unanimous suffrages of the Moslem chiefs: but this seeming assent did not preclude the animosities of subsequent competition. Even the widow of Mohammed excited an insurrection against him, though he was one of the most intimate friends and zealous supporters of her husband. After a turbulent reign, he was pierced by an envenomed sword, and died at Cufa, in the year 660. His son Hasaan resigned his pretensions to Moawiyah, one of Omar's most distinguished officers, who maintained himself on the throne for nineteen years,—a length of duration which may be thought very extraordinary, in a government apparently so unsettled.

The new khalif ruled with vigor and ability. He quelled a revolt with ease, secured general obedience, and extended his eastern frontier into Great Tartary. He was succeeded by his son Yezid; but the people of Cufa supported the claim of Ali's son Hoscin, whose death in the battle of Kerbela was considered by the Persians as a martyrdom, because he suffered for his zeal in the defence of Ali, who had reformed the Moslem faith by rejecting those traditions by which some doctors of the law had corrupted the simplicity of the Koran. Yezid exposed his character and memory to severe obloquy, not only for his hatred to the family of Ali, but for the massacre committed by one of his generals in the sacred city of Mediuu, when the inhabitants had rebelled against him. His feeble but upright son quickly abdicated the sovereignty, which was conferred upon two candidates by different factions. They reigned with divided power; but, after the death of Merwan, his son Abdalmalek suppressed all competition.

Al-Walid so far extended the Saracen power, that his authority was acknowledged from the city of Samarkand to the coast of Portugal. His brother Soliman, in 716, sent an army to besiege Constantinople; but the expedition was abortive, and was attended with dreadful loss. He named for his successor, in preference to his own family, Omar, the son of Abdalaziz, who, though he governed with mildness and moderation, was poisoned by a factious leader. Yezid, the son of Abdalmalek, then procured the diadem, which he did not long enjoy; for he died of grief for the loss of a favorite mistress, whose death he had unintentionally hastened in a frolic. The reign of his brother Hesham was distinguished by the total defeat of a very numerous army, which had advanced into the heart of France, and which, if its invasion had been as successful as it was expected by the Moslems to prove, would have made a momentous change in that part of Europe, and have unhinged the frame of Gothic policy. The fate of Al-Walid II., the next khalif, was remarkable. He was an avowed infidel, at a time when the generality of his people were animated with devout zeal; and, as his debauchery and profligacy kept pace with his impiety, he was deposed and put to death, in 743, by his Syrian subjects.

The dynasty of khalifs of the house of Ommyyah, which had commenced with Moawiyah, terminated in 750, with Merwan II., who lost

his life in an insurrection excited against him by Abou'l-Abbas, a descendant of Mohammed's uncle. The chief of the revolt then obtained the sovereignty, which he transmitted to his posterity for many generations. His brother Abou-Jaafar derived from his military success the appellation of *Al-Mansour*, or the Victorious. This prince put to death Abou-Moslem, a celebrated general, not because, in accomplishing and maintaining the late revolution, he had wantonly murdered myriads of people, but from the impulse of jealous policy. His successor Al-Mahadi reigned with reputation; but his fame was eclipsed by that of his son Haroun Al-Rashid (or the Just) whose reign was long and glorious. "His court (says Gibbon) was adorned with luxury and science: he was the most powerful and vigorous monarch of his race, illustrious in the west as the ally of Charlemagne;" and his name is familiar to youthful readers, as the hero of the Arabian Tales. He subjected the Greek empire to the disgrace of tributary submission; and to the fame of his power he added the reputation of humanity and justice. He died in 809; and, after a sanguinary contest between his sons, Al-Mamoun established himself in the khalifate. That regard for learning and the arts, by which Haroun distinguished himself, shone still more conspicuously in the character of the new commander of the faithful, whose studious attention to the progress of science contributed to render Bagdad (the new metropolis of the Saracen empire) the seat of comparative elegance and refinement, when the greater part even of the civilised world seemed to be immersed in ignorance and barbarism. Damascus had already enjoyed that distinction; but Bagdad soared to higher fame.

After some intervening reigns which do not demand particular notice, we find the throne occupied by Al-Mostain, who was harassed by commotions and insurrections. Al-Motasem, one of his predecessors, observing and lamenting the decline of that elevated courage which had led the Arabs to glory and conquest, had taken into his service a large body of Turks, without considering the danger that might attend the encouragement of such barbarians. Their daring spirit and insolence soon appeared. Their officers interfered in the administration, and presumed to dictate to the khalif. They even rebelled against Al-Mostain, in 865, and had sufficient power to place his brother on the throne, whom, however, they did not suffer long to reign. The outrages which they perpetrated excited general indignation; and the empire was convulsed with the most alarming commotions. Sometimes, a resolute prince found means to check the progress of disorder, and to maintain the dignity of the throne: but the vigor of the executive power was at other times relaxed, and the government became a mass of confusion. At length, about the middle of the tenth century, the empire was nearly ruined by the ambition of various chiefs, who had erected so many principalities, that the khalif became merely the feeble ruler of Bagdad and the circumjacent country. Yet this contemptible government continued to exist until the year 1258, when it terminated with the khalif Motasem, who was murdered by the ferocious leader of a Monghol army.

Even the khalifs, in the plenitude of their power, were not complete masters of Arabia. Many of the roving tribes were independent, and disdained the idea of submitting to a servile yoke: but at length the Turks extended their oppressive yoke over a great part of the country, and were not dispossessed of their usurped authority before the year 1630. The princes, who were thus left to themselves, kept the country in a

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state of tranquillity, which was not materially disturbed before the year 1720, when Wahab, a politic or fanatic sheik, began to propagate doctrines of reform. He denied all inspiration, opposed the worship of saints, condemned all finery in dress and in furniture, and broached other opinions which were deemed heterodox by the devout Moslems. He gradually made many proselytes, and also acquired a great degree of temporal power. After his death, the sect continued to advance; and, at the beginning of the present century, the sanctity of Mecca was profaned by a great body of Wahabis, who destroyed many of its religious buildings, leaving however the temple itself uninjured. They afterwards stripped Medina of its treasures, but failed in their attempt upon the commercial wealth of Mocha and Jedda. Troops were at different times sent from Egypt against these rebellious sectaries, without being able to subdue them.

It appears, from recent accounts, that Mohammed Ali, the pasha of Egypt, in return for his services against the Greek revolters, has been allowed to act, in a great measure, as sovereign of Arabia, under the nominal authority of the Porte.

PERSIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	1100	} between	{ 46 and 66 east longitude.	}	525,000
Breadth	900				

NAME.] PERSIA, according to the poets, derived its name from Perses, 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. The natives have given to their country the appellation of Iran.

BOUNDARIES.] Persia is bound by the Caspian Sea, on the north; by the river Oxus or Gihoun, 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 the Turkish territories on the west.

DIVISIONS.] This kingdom contains the following provinces:—

Provinces.	Ancient Names.	Chief Towns.
Fars,	Persis, or Persia propria	Shiraz
Laristan	Persis	Lar
Irak Agemi	Media	Ispahan
Aderbijan	Media Atropatene	Tauris, now Tabriz
Khusistan	Susiana	Suster
Mazanderan	Margiana	Sari
Khorasan	Margiana and Aria	Meshed
Ghilan	Gela	Reshd
Sablestan	Bactriana	Bost
Segestan	Arachosia	Zareng
Mekran	Gedrosia	Kej
Kerman	Carmania	Kerman

MOUNTAINS.] These are Ararat, Caucasus, and the vast chain of mountains called Taurus, and their divisions, which run through the middle of the country from Asia Minor 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, formerly Araxes; which rise in or near the mountain of Ararat, and, joining their streams, fall into the Caspian Sea. Some rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their streams are so inconsiderable, that few of them can be navigated even by boats. In consequence of this deficiency, water is scarce; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts, and canals.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Persia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and, above all, turquois-stones, which are found in Khorasan. Sulphur, saltpetre, 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 the mountains near the Caspian Sea are in general cold, as those heights are commonly covered with snow. In the midland provinces of Persia, the air is serene, pure, and exhilarating; but, in the southern provinces, it is hot, and communicates noxious blasts, which are sometimes mortal.

SOIL, VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] The soil is far from being luxuriant toward Tartary and the Caspian Sea; but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruit. To the south of mount Taurus, the country abounds in corn, fruit, wine, and the other necessaries and luxuries of life. It affords oil in plenty, senna, rhubarb, and the finest drugs. Great quantities of excellent silk are likewise produced in this country; and the Gulf of Bassora formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Ispaha 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. Few places produce the necessaries of life in greater abundance and perfection than Shiraz; and a more delightful spot in nature can scarcely be conceived, than the vale in which it is situated, 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 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 flavor to what can be raised in Europe, particularly the apricot, grape, and pomegranate. The last is good to a proverb; the Persians, in their pompous style, call it the fruit of Paradise.

ANIMALS.] The horses vary in the different provinces, some of which have fine breeds, and others the contrary. The best are those which are produced near the western frontier; but even these are not so swift or so beautiful as the Arabian steeds. The mules are small, but strong and finely proportioned; the wild asses also are fine animals, and their flesh is considered as dainty food; and the camels of Khorasan are not inferior to those of Arabia. Sheep are most abundant in the northern parts of the country, and they are in general fine creatures. The oxen are large and strong; but their flesh is seldom eaten by the natives, who confine themselves chiefly to that of sheep and fowls. The wild quadrupeds are lions, bears, wolves, jackalls, foxes, zebras, deer, hares, &c. The birds are nearly the same with those of Europe. In the interior, the people are not much annoyed by insects; but, at Miana, and other places, there are bugs which inflict shocking wounds, chiefly upon strangers, so as to occasion fevers and sometimes death. Locusts

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NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The baths near Gomroun are medicinal, and esteemed the natural curiosities of Persia; but the most remarkable object, under this head, is the burning phænomenon, mentioned under the article of Religion.

There is another curiosity which particularly deserves notice. "It consists (says Mr. Morier) of certain ponds or plashe, whose indolent waters by a slow and regular process stagnate, concrete, and petrify, and produce that beautiful transparent stone called Tabriz marble, which forms a chief ornament in all the buidings of note throughout the country. A strong mineral smell arises from the ponds. In one part, the water is clear; in a second, it appears thicker and stagnant; in a third, quite black; and, in its last stage, is white like a hoar frost." It seems (he adds) as if the bubbles of a spring, by a stroke of magic, had been arrested in their play, and metamorphosed into marble.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The people of Persia may be divided into four classes. The pastoral tribes that live in tents, in the western parts, form the first division. Another class consists of the Turcoman tribes, a rough and hardy race of Moslems; the third, of the inhabitants of towns, and the agricultural part of the community; and the fourth, of the Arabs, who occupy the country between the mountains and the Persian gulf. Sixteen millions may be supposed to constitute the amount of the present population.

The Persians of both sexes are generally handsome; and the swarthy complexions of the southern natives do not detract from their dignity of aspect. The men shave their heads; but the young men suffer a lock of hair to grow on each side, and their beards to reach their temples; and religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear magnificent turbans. They are so desirous of keeping their heads very warm, 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 persons they wear calico shirts, and over them they have 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 fur, silk, muslin, or cotton, embroidered with gold and silver. They wear linen trowsers, loose boots, and slippers. They are fond of riding, and very gay in their equipages. The collars of their shirts and clothes are open; and their dress upon the whole is better adapted for the purposes 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 take great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colors, and washes, particularly by rubbing their eyebrows and eye-lids with the black powder of antimony.

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, and about eleven dine upon fruit, sweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repasts cakes of rice, and others of wheat flour; and, as they deem 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 fowl, is so prepared that they can divide it with their fingers. They use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks; and, though they are temperate, are not very deli-

cate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are so immoderately fond of tobacco, which they smoke through a tube fixed in water, 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 generally polite, and, though accused of insincerity and dissimulation, have a pleasing and plausible address. Their chief foibles seem to be an ostentation in their equipages and dresses, and a jealousy of their women. They are fond of music (in which, however, they have little skill), and take pleasure in conversing in large companies; but their chief diversions are hawking, hunting, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms. They excel, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. They are diverted by the performances of wrestlers, jugglers, buffoons, story-tellers, and dancing boys: but dancing girls, not being allowed to appear at court, are rarely seen, except in the towns which are remote from the capital. Exhibitions of fighting beasts highly gratify them; fire-works and puppet-shows are among their occasional amusements; and they privately play at games of chance. The present king is particularly fond of the chase: he is an expert marksman and an excellent horseman. In his retired hours, he amuses himself with the pleasantries of a fool or jester, and the varied tales of an official narrator of anecdotes and adventures.

A man of rank rises at day-break, recites his prayers, and then enters the hall appropriated to business. His pipe is brought to him, and sometimes fruit; and here he expects visitants. With them he is engaged until nine o'clock, listening to the reports of the morning, adjusting disputes, and arranging domestic concerns. He then pays a visit to the king, or the governor of the town or province, if it be convenient for him in point of distance. He returns to take his dinner, repeats his mid-day prayers, and retires to sleep. When he has thus refreshed himself, he again receives or visits his friends. The afternoon prayers are not neglected: at dusk carpets are spread in the open air, where he and his friends pass the evening in conversation, sometimes varying the scene by witnessing the performances of Georgian boys, who sing, play on various instruments, and display their address in feats of activity.

There are places in Shiraz distinguished by the name of *Zour 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 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, they immediately strip themselves to the waist. Each man then 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 backward and forward with great agility, stamping with their feet at the same time, and straining every nerve, so as to produce a 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,

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The Persians, with respect to outward behaviour, are certainly the most polished people of the East. While a rude and insolent demeanor peculiarly marks the character of the Turkish nation toward foreigners and Christians, the behaviour of the Persians would, on the contrary, do honor to the most civilised nations. They are courteous and obliging to all strangers; they are fond of inquiring after the manners and customs of Europe: and, in return, 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 honored if you will enter his house and partake of what the family affords; whereas going out of a house without smoking or taking any refreshment, is deemed, in Persia, a high affront; they say that every meal, in which a stranger partakes with them, brings a blessing upon the house.

In their conversation they aim much at elegance, and frequently repeat passages from the works of their favorite poets. They also delight in jokes and quaint expressions, and are fond of playing upon each other, which they sometimes do with great elegance and irony.

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 resides, whom they intend to demand. 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, 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*. The wedding-night being come, the bride is brought forth from the head to the feet 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 has mounted, a large looking-glass is carried before her by one of the bridesmaids, 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. The procession is conducted in the following order:—first, the music and dancing girls; afterwards, the presents in trays borne upon men's shoulders; next come the relatives and friends of the bridegroom, all shouting; who are followed by the bride herself, surrounded by all her female friends and kindred, one of whom leads the horse by the bridle, and several others on horseback close the procession. Rejoicings on this occasion generally continue eight or ten days. Men may marry for life, or any determined time, in Persia, as well as through all Tartary; and all travelers or merchants, who intend to stay some time in any city, commonly apply to the *cadi* for a temporary wife. The magistrate, for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honest, and free from disease; and he becomes surety for them.

A Persian may divorce his wife at pleasure. If a husband sues for a separation, he must pay his wife's dower; but she loses it if she should solicit a divorce. Adultery, on her part, is punished with death. Beside four wives, a man may entertain in his family an unlimited number either of slaves or free women, to whom he may dispense his amorous favors.

FUNERALS.] The funerals of the Persians are conducted in a manner similar to those in other Mohammedan countries. The relatives and friends of the deceased, being assembled, make loud lamentations over the corpse; after which it is washed, placed on a bier, and carried to the place of interment without the city-walls, attended by a moulah or priest, who chants passages from the Koran all the way to the grave. If any Moslem 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, "There is no God but God." After interment, the women of the family make a mixture of wheat, honey, and spice, which they eat in memory of the deceased; sending a part of it to their friends, that they may also pay him a like honor.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Teheran, in the north-western part of the province of Irak, is now considered as the capital of Persia, because it is the seat of government. It is about four miles in circumference, situated in a dreary plain, which is only partially cultivated. It is furnished with a citadel, and surrounded by a strong wall; but it is not a handsome or well-built town. Within the fortress is the palace, which displays no external magnificence. So excessive is the heat of the summer in this neighbourhood, that the king and the greater part of the inhabitants annually leave it for two or three months. The population is then under 15,000; but, during the rest of the year, it amounts to 50,000.

Ispahan, which was formerly the Persian capital, is seated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderoud. It contains some fine squares and noble houses; but the streets are neither wide nor regular, and the town in general is wretchedly built. It bears evident marks of neglect; yet it is not so deserted, as to have only a small population; for it is still occupied by about 55,000 persons. The bazars are so extensive, that you may walk for two or three miles under the shelter which they afford. The best manufactures of the place are those of silk and cotton: the latter stuff resembles nankin, and is worn by all ranks from the king to the peasant. The chief ornament of the town is the Palace of forty Pillars, called also the Persian Versailles, of which Sir Robert Ker Porter speaks in a rapturous strain. "The exhaustless profusion (he says) of its splendid materials, may be said to reflect, not merely their own golden or crystal lights on each other, but all the variegated colors of the garden; so that the whole surface seems formed of polished silver and mother-of-pearl, set with precious stones. In short, the scene seems almost to realise an eastern poet's dream, or some magic vision. The roof is sustained by a double range of columns, each being forty feet high, and shooting up from the united backs of four lions of white marble, while their shafts are covered with arabesque patterns and foliage. The ceiling is adorned with the representations of flowers and animals, in gold, silver, and painting, amidst hundreds of intermingling compartments of glittering mirrors." There is (he adds) "a vast interior saloon, in which all the caprices, and labors, and cost of eastern magnificence, have been lavished to an incredible prodigality."

Shiraz lies about 225 miles to the south-east of Ispahan. It is an open town, and its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful. This town has a college for the study of Eastern learning, and is adorned by many noble buildings; but its streets are narrow and inconvenient; the houses in general are mean and dirty, and not above 4000 of them are inhabited, in which, perhaps, about 20,000 persons reside. It has some good bazars and caravanserais; that distinguished by the appellation of

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the Vakeel's bazar (so called from its being built by Kerim Khan) is the handsomest. The city also contains many fine mosques, particularly that built by Kerim. This 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.

The police in Shiraz, as well as all over Persia, is very strict. At sun-set, the gates of the city are shut; no person is permitted either to come in or go out during the night, the keys of the different gates being always sent to the hakem or governor, and remaining with him until morning. During the night, three 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 drum 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 the morning, when they are led before the hakem; and, if they cannot give a very good account of themselves, are punished, either by the bastinado or a fine.

Tabriz stands on a plain bounded by mountains, which, though barren, recede into a well-cultivated vale. In the seventeenth century it was considered as the second city in Persia; but, if it had not become the principal residence of the heir apparent of the Persian crown, it would by this time have declined into insignificance. He has improved the fortifications, formed a great arsenal, and built a palace for himself; he encourages the industry of the inhabitants, and promotes the European arts and inventions. The population of the town is about 45,000.

Ardebil was formerly a large and flourishing town; but it has now only 4000 inhabitants, though it possesses a great object of Moslem veneration,—namely, the magnificent mausoleum of that sanctified sheik who was the founder of the Sefi family.

Meshed, though the capital of Khorasan, is not so populous or flourishing as Herat, having only about 40,000 inhabitants. Its manufactures (says Mr. Fraser) are not extensive; but it still retains its former celebrity for some articles. Its velvets are considered as the best in Persia; but its silks and cottons are less famous. Sword-blades of good temper are here fabricated, their excellence being derived (it is said) from the skill of many descendants of a colony of artisans, transplanted from Damascus to this province by Timour.—The city is built of sun-dried bricks: the houses in general make a wretched appearance, and the apartments are meanly furnished; and a great part of the city is in ruins. Yet some of the public buildings have an air of magnificence, particularly a mosque founded by the wife of one of Timour's sons, and the medresas, or endowed religious colleges. The most admired structure in the town is the mausoleum of the imam Reza, whose memory is still revered. On approaching it a noble square strikes the eye, surrounded by two stories of apartments, which open in the front into a handsome arched gallery. In the centre of each side is a very lofty gateway, and the whole is incrustated with mosaic work of tiles, painted and glazed, and arranged in figures of the most tasteful patterns and colors. The most striking external ornaments of the mausoleum are two minarets of a very beautiful model; the central chamber looks like the nave of a cathedral, and, in a neatly-decorated octagonal room, is the shrine which covers the remains of the saint, enriched with jewels by the liberal piety of the present monarch.

Most of the Persian towns have some kind of defence: this (says sir

John Malcolm) is generally a high mud wall, which is flanked by turrets, and sometimes protected by a deep dry ditch and a rude glacis. The habitations of ordinary persons, according to the same author, are usually formed of mud; but the apartments are generally better than their external appearance would seem to indicate. While terraced roofs are the most frequent, a dome roof is sometimes preferred, with a view of diminishing the necessity of making use of wood.

The houses of men of quality in Persia are seldom above one story high, built of bricks, with flat roofs 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, instead of which they have a round hole in the middle of the room. Some of these mansions, however, exhibit an air of light and pleasing architecture; the halls are frequently supported by pillars which are exquisitely carved and gilt; and the windows of the apartments are curiously ornamented with stained glass. The furniture chiefly consists of carpets; and the beds are two thick cotton quilts, which are used likewise as coverlets, with carpets under them.

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: for their drawings are very rude, and they have no idea of perspective. Their dyeing excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold lace, and thread, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroidery and horse-furniture are not to be equaled; 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 the consequence of the scarcity of timber in Persia. Their artisans in jewel-work, and in gold and silver, are very unskilful; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses. Upon the whole, they lie under great disadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them slaves to their kings, who often engross either their labor or their profit.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS.] These are extremely precarious, as resting in the breast of a despot. 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 kings of Persia are almost incredible, especially during the two last centuries. The reason given to the Christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could only be governed by exemplary rigor: but this was a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favorites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the smallest disobedience to their will is frequently attended with 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 laws of Persia, where the will of the sovereign does not interfere, are supposed to be founded on the Koran; but the laws of immemorial custom are also admitted. Civil matters are determined by the ordinary magistrates, and ecclesiastical ones (particularly divorces) by the head of the faith. Justice is administered in Persia in a very summary manner;

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the sentence, whatever it may be, being always put into execution on the spot. Theft is generally punished with the loss of the nose and ears; for robbing on the road, the belly of the criminal is sometimes ripped up: but the most common punishments for great crimes are strangling, stabbing, or decapitation. Fateh Ali is rather humane than remarkably severe or cruel; but some of his predecessors, in the wantonness of power, were accustomed to put out the eyes of their subjects for trifling offences, and sometimes for no real delinquency. His tyrannical uncle ordered a soldier, who had relieved him when he had fallen into a fit, to be deprived of his sight for repeatedly looking at him; and, when he was contending for the sovereignty, he put out the eyes of five thousand inhabitants of Kerman, beside the massacre of an equal number, because they refused to submit tamely to his usurpation, and suffered his competitor to escape from their city.

REVENUES.] The king claims one third of the cattle, corn, and fruit, of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No persons, of whatever rank, are 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, the 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 of the established religion, pay a ducat a head. Yet, according to Mr. Kinneir, the revenue does not far exceed three millions sterling.

MILITARY FORCE.] This consisted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Soon after the beginning of the last century, however, the kings raised bodies of infantry. Since the last war with Russia, it has been deemed expedient to introduce the European discipline; and Abbas, the heir apparent, has under his command 12,000 men, who were first instructed by French and afterward by British officers. There is another grand division of infantry, nearly amounting to the same number; but the men belonging to it are not so well paid, clothed, or disciplined, as those of the former corps, who annually receive ten tomans. Large bodies of cavalry are furnished by the warlike and wandering tribes of the country, and commanded by their own chieftains, who affirm that the king can bring into the field 80,000 men of this description. He has also an equestrian guard, composed of 3500 men, who are liberally paid, and whom he inspires with a high opinion of their own importance. Beside this force, Persia boasts of a militia, to the amount of 150,000 men, who are severally armed with a matchlock, sabre, and dagger.

With regard to maritime force, we may affirm that it either does not exist at all in Persia, or is too inconsiderable for notice. Nadir Shah made some attempts to raise a navy; but the scarcity of wood and other difficulties baffled his views in that respect.

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 Tartarian titles. To acts of state, the king 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 of the sect of Ali; for which reason the Turks, who follow the succession of Abu Beker, Omar, and Othman, stigmatise them as heretics. Both nations agree in the principal doctrines of the Mohammedan religion: but the Persians, reflecting with pious indignation on the insult offered to Ali, who, being the cousin and

son-in-law of the prophet, and the first convert, justly claimed the immediate succession, execrate the three supplanters of their favorite, and deny the authority of the traditions which were brought forward by those khalifs, and copiously illustrated by four celebrated doctors of the law,—Hanifa, Malec, Shaffei, and Hanbal. Their religion is, in some things, more fantastical and sensual than that of the Turks: it is also 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, or Zerdusht, the celebrated philosopher, who, according to some authors, flourished in the reign of the first Darius. That both of them held originally pure and simple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be easily proved: but the Brahmins and Persees 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, near Badku, in the north of Persia, is the scene of the devotion of the Guebres. This ground is impregnated with inflammable 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 long wars between the Persians and the Romans seen early to have driven the ancient Christians into Persia and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, sects are found that evidently have Christianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called Sefis, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the moral duties. The Sabeen Christians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mohammedianism, and are numerous toward the Persian Gulf.

The Armenians flourished in this country under the protection of the Shah Abbas; but they are now a declining sect, though they are still tolerated in their adherence to the ancient doctrines of the Greek church, and are allowed to have places of worship and monasteries.

The Persians observe the fast during the month of Ramadan with great strictness and severity. About an hour before day-light, they take refreshment, and from that time until the next evening at sun-set they neither eat nor drink of any thing whatever. From sun-set until the next morning they are allowed to refresh themselves. This fast, when the month Ramadan falls in the middle of summer, as it sometimes must do (the Mohammedan year being lunar), is extremely severe, especially to those who are obliged by their occupations to go about in the day; and is rendered still more so, as there are also several nights (while it continues) which they are ordered to spend in prayer. The Persians more particularly observe two; one being the anniversary of the lamented death of Ali, who was wounded by an assassin; while the other refers to the night when the koran was brought down from Heaven.

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 admired Persian poets. Ferdousi 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 styled by Sir William Jones “a glorious monument of Eastern genius and learning.” He died in the year 1020, before the Persian throne was sullied by the intrusion of the Turks. Sadi, who was a native of Shiraz, flourished in the thirteenth century, and wrote many elegant pieces both in prose and verse. Nizami, as an epic poet, is placed in the next rank to Ferdousi;

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and Gelaeddin is admired both for acuteness and sublimity. Nakhsheb wrote in Persian an amusing work called the Tales of a Parrot. Jami was a most animated and elegant poet, who flourished in the middle of the fifteenth century. 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 charming pieces of poetry. Khound-emir and Mir-khond, who are sometimes confounded, are celebrated in the historic department.

Of the sprightly and voluptuous bard of Shiraz, the name and character are sufficiently known to orientalists. We here allude to Shemseddin, surnamed Hafiz, who conciliated the favor of an offended potentate by the delicacy of his wit and the elegance of his verses; whom the most powerful princes of the East sought in vain to draw from literary retirement; and whose works were not only the admiration of the jovial and the gay, but the manual of mystic piety to the superstitious Moslem, the oracle which, like the *Sortes Virgiliana*, determined the counsels of the wise, and prognosticated the fate of armies and of states.

The tomb of this admired poet stands near the walls of Shiraz: it is composed of fine white marble, and is placed in a large garden, under the shade of some cypress-trees of extraordinary size and beauty. This was built by Kerim Khan, and covers the original one. During the spring and summer, the inhabitants visit the tomb, and amuse themselves with smoking, playing at chess and other games, reading also the works of the venerated bard.

At present learning is in a low state among the Persians. Their boasted skill in astronomy is 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 some of the Persian physicians are acute and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no strangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna; but they are unacquainted with anatomy, because their religion prohibits dissection. The plague is little known in this country; and almost equally rare are some other diseases that are fatal in many places; such as the gout, the stone, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore circumscribed, and they are very ignorant of the surgical art.

LANGUAGE.] The common people, especially toward the southern coasts of the Caspian Sea, speak the Turkish; and the Arabic was probably introduced into Persia under the khalifs, when learning flourished in those countries. Many of the learned Persians have written in the Arabic, and persons 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, in many of the provinces, the inhabitants speak a barbarous mixture of the Turkish, Russian, and other tongues.

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 Lord's Prayer in Persian is as follows: *Ei Padere, ma kib der osmoni; pac bashed mám tu; bay ayed padeshabi tu; shwad chruúste tu benzúnaukib der osmon niz derzemin; béh mara imrouz nán kef*

af rowz mara; wadarguasar mara konâhon ma zjunaukihma utz mig sarim orman mara; wador ozmajisch miredâzzmara; likin chalas kun mara ez efherir.

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: but many figures in relief have been found in different excavations, which throw light on the countenances, dress, arms, and accoutrements, of the Persians who lived long before the invasion of their country by the Saracens. At Shapour, is a rock very curiously sculptured, and, in a cavern under it, a fallen statue has been discovered, which (says Mr. Morler) is the only known statue in Persia. The tombs of some of the ancient kings are stupendous works, abounding with ornaments carved on rocks; but the inscriptions are unintelligible.

HISTORY.] The foundation of the Persian monarchy is attributed by some of the native historiographers to Cayoumaras; but this point is as uncertain as the time of its erection. A part of this region, if not the whole, is supposed to be the Elam of Scripture, colonised by the posterity of Shem. Its limits, in all probability, were gradually extended, until it became a considerable kingdom; but, whatever may be the pretences of the Persian historians or poets (for Ferdous and some other writers united both characters) to an antiquity which soars far beyond the reach of records, we may reasonably conclude that the earliest ruler mentioned in the nominal or pretended history of the realm did not reign above 900 years before the Christian æra.

To Husheng, the reputed successor of Cayoumaras, the honorable appellation of the *Legislator* has been given. Another distinguished prince was Gemshaid, whose memory is still respected by the Persians. After various usurpations, the crown was transferred to a new line of kings, of whom Kohad the Great was the first. According to some accounts, Cyrus was the third king of this series. Of the power and exploits of that monarch we have taken some notice in the Introduction; but it may not be improper to treat more particularly of his remarkable acts. Before his acquisition of sovereign power, he evinced his talents and courage in the government of Persia, a great part of which was then subject to his uncle Cyaxares, king of the Medes. He suppressed the commotions of that province, and enforced a due respect to the supreme authority. Being menaced with an invasion from Croesus the Lydian king, he resolved to anticipate the views of that prince; and his success was speedy and complete; for he not only conquered but deposed his adversary. He subdued the whole extent of Asia Minor, and deprived the Babylonians of all remains of authority in Persia. His next object was the acquisition of their capital, which was the strongest city in Asia. After a siege of two years, he gained it by a stratagem, when the garrison and the inhabitants were carelessly celebrating a festival. By these and other conquests, Cyrus, on the death of Cyaxares, became the greatest prince in the civilised world. Some of the oriental historians affirm, that he resigned his imperial dignity; but the Greek and Roman writers assert, that he engaged in a rash war with the Scythians, and lost his life in the field.

Cambyses, the son of Cyrus, ruined a fine army in a rash expedition to Ethiopia; and Darius, his successor, being inflamed by the ambitious hope of subduing Greece, could only, with all his efforts, entail disgrace on the great empire. Xerxes was equally unfortunate in a si-

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similar enterprise, and his precipitate flight was still more ignominious. When Alexander the Great triumphed over Darius III., it was some consolation to the Persians to find that those enemies who had so repeatedly baffled their arms were at the same time enslaved by the Macedonian victor.

In that contest for power and dominion, which arose among Alexander's generals, the sovereignty of Persia was obtained by Seleucus; and the throne was filled by his descendants, until the 250th year before the Christian æra, when it was usurped by Arsaces, a bold adventurer, who easily persuaded the Parthians, or the inhabitants of the interior of Persia, to revolt from tyrannic sway. The successors of the new king gradually extended their sway to the frontiers of India, and, in an opposite direction, to the banks of the Euphrates; and they even presented a firm front to the Romans, whose career of oriental conquest they seriously checked. When they had flourished in power and splendor for almost five centuries, the ambition and success of Artaxerxes introduced the Sassanian line of sovereigns. He pretended to trace his descent from the earliest Persian dynasty; and his claim was generally admitted, but not before he had established his reputation by signal victories.

The Sassanian series of monarchs continued to the time of Mohammed, who, if his life had been prolonged, would have extinguished their power, and have compelled their subjects to embrace his doctrines; but that task was reserved for the khalif Othman, by whose victorious troops Yezdegerd, the Persian king, was defeated and slain, in the year 651. The country was subsequently governed by Saracen viceroys, until the decline of the khalifate tempted the ambition of military adventurers, who erected independent principalities over the wide extent of the empire. Persia was divided into many states; but at length Togrol-Bek, a Turkish chieftain, took possession of the greater part of that region. He died in 1063; and the Seljukian line of princes followed, of whom some were men of distinguished ability.

The kingdom was conquered, in the thirteenth century, by the Monghol warrior, Cenghiz-Khan; and it was afterward subdued by Timour the renowned Tartar. His death left the kingdom a prey to intestine divisions, which were in a great measure composed, in 1508, by the elevation of Ismael Sefi to the throne. This prince was the descendant of a sheik who had been patronised by Timour, and who was revered as a saint; and, by courting the sectaries who followed the doctrines of Ahi, he raised an army, and waded through slaughter to the throne. To this family belonged the shah Abbas, styled the Great, who reigned forty-three years with distinguished fame, extending the boundaries and improving the state of his realm. His grandson Sefi was the Nero of Persia. Abbas II. united debauchery with cruelty; and his successor Sefi II. was a prince of a similar character, under whom the importance and dignity of the kingdom visibly declined.

In the reign of Hosein, the government became so contemptible, that the Afghans revolted, and proclaimed Weis, their leader, king of Candahar; whose son Mahmoud, in 1723, took Ispahan, and dethroned the shah. Tahmas, son of the deposed prince, formed a party against Esref, who succeeded the usurper, and, by the aid of Nadir Kouli, a leader of banditti, recovered the crown. The ambition of the fortunate general at length overcame his fidelity: he rebelled, in 1732, against his feeble sovereign, and basely supplanted him. The usurper then turned his arms against the Turks, who had taken advantage of the disordered state of

Persia, with a view of extending their frontiers. They at first defeated his troops; but he took a severe revenge in another battle. He also met with triumphant success in Armenia and Georgia. He attacked the Afghans, and deprived them of Candahar after a long siege; and at Caboul, which he likewise reduced, he enriched himself with ample spoils. Intent on the conquest of India, he marched against the shah Mohammed, in 1738, and reached Dehli in his victorious career. A commotion arising in that populous city from the indignation of the inferior inhabitants, who slew some of the straggling invaders, the brutal and vindictive conqueror gave orders for a general massacre; and it is said, that 120,000 lives were sacrificed to his fury. He condescended to leave the great Mogul in possession of his throne, but robbed him and his chief officers of immense wealth. After his return to Persia, he indulged himself in shameful rapacity and horrible inhumanity, and thus increased the odium which he had before excited by his endeavours to bring the bigoted followers of Ali to a conformity with the Turkish creed. The people submitted to his tyranny for many years; but it was at last so intolerable that some of his principal attendants, in 1747, put him to death in his tent. He cried out for mercy, promising full pardon to all his assailants; but an Afghan officer sternly replied, "Those who have shown no mercy, deserve none."

Ali, the nephew of the murdered tyrant, quietly ascended the throne, and endeavoured to conciliate the people by some liberal acts; but he could not secure their good-will, nor, indeed, did he deserve their regard. His brother Ibrahim, taking up arms against him, defeated and deposed him. The two brothers being put to death by the troops, Shah Rokh, grandson of Nadir, was placed on the throne; but his authority was far from being generally acknowledged, and other pretenders aimed at the splendid prize of royalty. He was made prisoner and deprived of sight by a bold adventurer; he was restored, and again dethroned. At length Ahmed the Afghan, king of Candahar, took him under his protection, and permitted him to keep a nominal court at Meshed. Ispahan, in the mean time, was occupied by Ali Merdan, who, in concert with Kerim, the son of a freebooter, crowned a pageant of the Sefi family, and governed in his name.

Kerim was grossly illiterate; but he had talents, good sense, and judgment. He treated Ali with deference and respect: but, when he found himself exposed to personal danger from the ambition of his colleague, he took arms against him; and, by the death of his enemy, he obtained the chief sway over several provinces. His authority, however, was disputed by two powerful chieftains. Over one of these opponents he triumphed in the battle of Humarej; and the other, in 1757, was defeated and slain. From that time to the year 1779, Kerim enjoyed the actual sovereignty of the greater part of Persia; but he modestly declined an assumption of the royal title. He governed with wisdom and ability, and testified a great regard for the interest and welfare of the people. He was sometimes severe, and his memory deserves censure for his connivance at the atrocious barbarity of his half-brother Zeckee-Khan; but his general government was just, moderate, and humane. "His death (says sir John Malcolm) was that of a father, amidst a family whom he had cherished, and by whom he was beloved. The inhabitants of Persia, to this day, venerate his name."

Two sons of Kerim were declared his successors, under the guardianship of Zeckee, who soon fell a victim to the detestation which his cruelties had excited. A contest for the chief power then arose between Sadack,

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the brother of Kerim, and his nephew Morad, who, having blockaded his competitor in Shiraz for eight months, compelled him to surrender, and put him to death. The conqueror reigned for some years, but not with undisputed authority. Mohammed Khan, chief of the Kujur tribe, thought himself equally worthy of royalty, and erected his standard in the province of Mazanderan. He defeated the troops that were sent against him; and, on the death of Morad, he gained possession of Ispahan, while Juffier Khan, half-brother of the deceased king, ruled at Shiraz. The latter prince being murdered amidst the convulsions of the state, his son Lootf Ali assumed the royal designation. For six years he contended with Mohammed for the sole sovereignty: but all his efforts and occasional victories could not establish his power. He fell into the hands of his ferocious enemy, who, having ordered his eyes to be put out, sent him to prison, and soon after issued a mandate for his death.

Mohammed Khan was now the acknowledged master of the chief provinces, but he did not long enjoy that throne to which he had waded through slaughter. He possessed vigor of mind, and manifested, in various instances, a regard for justice; but he was meanly rapacious, and execrably inhuman. When he had composed the troubles of the realm, his ambition led him, in 1795, into Georgia, over which he hoped to establish that authority which he had usurped in Persia. On his approach to Teflis, a battle ensued, in which the Georgians, being unaided by the Russians, were totally defeated. The conqueror gratified himself and his followers with the spoils of the city, and gave them a full licence for every enormity. While he exulted in the increase of his power, he was alarmed at the progress of a Russian army, which made a great impression upon his frontiers; but he was relieved by the death of the empress Catharine and the altered politics of Paul. He was preparing for a new expedition to Georgia, when he was murdered, in 1797, by two of his menial servants, whom, for a trivial offence, he had menaced with death.

Fateh Ali, nephew of the late king, was placed on the throne by the will of his uncle, and quickly suppressed the revolt of three chieftains or nobles, who severally aimed at the crown. He also succeeded in the establishment of his authority over Khorasan; but he could not, with all his efforts, prevent the Russians from subduing Georgia. In 1808, he was involved in a new war with that nation; and it was carried on for some years with various success. The Persians fought with great spirit in some of the conflicts; but their sovereign consented to purchase peace, in 1813, by the cession of Shirvan and other territories. He afterwards concluded a commercial treaty with Alexander; but, being still jealous of the ambition of that prince, he strengthened himself by an alliance with the British court. He has lately (in 1826) renewed the war with Russia, without any immediate provocation; and the probable result will be a farther defalcation from the extent of his dominions. This prince has manifested his ability by the long preservation of that power and authority to which he had no lawful claim; but, as he has thirty-nine sons, some of whom are aspiring men, a contest for the diadem is very likely to arise after his death.

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN ASIA.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	4500	} between { 50 and 190 East longitude. } } 50 and 76 North latitude. }	} 3,300,000
Breadth	1800		

BOUNDARIES.] THE Russian dominions in Asia are bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; on the east by the seas of Kamchatka and Okotak, or the Eastern Ocean; on the south by Chinese and Independent Tartary, Persia, and Turkey; and on the west by European Russia.

DIVISIONS.] The governments of the Russian empire in general have already been enumerated; those of which come parts or the whole are in Asia, are Caucasia, Saratof, Simbirsk, Orenburg, Ufa, Kasan, Perm, Tobolsk, Kolhyvan, Irkutsk; to which the peninsula of Kamchatka must be added. In the first of these, Circassia and Georgia are comprehended.

The three great governments of Tobolsk, Kolhyvan, and Irkutsk, are called by the general name of Siberia, from an ancient town 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 former 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, Nerzhinsk, Yakutsk, and Okotsk.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Asiatic Russia are the Uralian chain, those of Caucasus, Altai, and Nerzhinsk.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of this country are the Ob or Ouy, the largest in the Russian empire, the length of its course being 1800 miles; and the Yenisei, which has a course of about 1650. The former falls into the Frozen Ocean, in which also the Yenisei terminates. The other principal rivers are the Irtysh, which flows into the Ob; the Lena; the Angara, which falls into the Yenisei; the Argoun, the boundary between the Russian and Chinese territories; the Selioya, and the Yaik or Ural.

In the southern part of Siberia, near the confines of Chinese Tartary, is the lake or sea of Baikal, 300 miles long and about 35 broad. There are some lakes of less note, which we are not required to particularise.

METALS, MINERALS.] Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, jasper, and lapis-lazuli: but those of gold and silver are not very productive. Asiatic Russia also affords sulphur, alum, sal ammoniac, vitriol, nitre, and patron, in abundance.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The government of Caucasia, and in general the southern parts of this extensive region, are exceedingly fertile, more from nature than industry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruit 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 corrupted, and the soil sometimes ruined, by immense quantities of locusts. The climate of Siberia is extremely cold; but the air is so pure and wholesome, that its inhabitants, in all probability, would live to a very great age, if they were not so much addicted to an immoderate use of

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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; and currants and strawberries are said to grow here in as great perfection as in the English gardens: yet the great fruit-trees generally fail. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, 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. The horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy: but, 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 color, and 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 quadrupeds, 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 scarcely a hill. They contain in many places salt lakes, and, in others, productive tracts capable of cultivation. The peninsula to Kamchatka abounds in volcanos; but their eruptions are very rare. 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, cannot reasonably be estimated (all circumstances being considered) at more than eight millions.

In a survey of the inhabitants, the **GEORGIANS** seem to claim our first notice. Their territory is bounded on the north by the highest ridge of Mount Caucasus, on the west (if we include Mingrelia) by the Euxine, on the south by Armenia, and on the east by Daghestan. The face of the country is mountainous, with an intermixture of extensive plains; it is watered by a considerable number of rivers; and the hills are covered with forests of pine, oak, ash, and beech, and are also enriched with the most valuable metals. The cotton plant, and the finest fruit-trees, abound in the plains; and maize, rice, hemp, and flax, are raised with little culture; but wheat, rye, oats, and barley, do not thrive in this country; and so indolent are the inhabitants, that they are frequently exposed by their negligence and improvidence to the danger of famine. Mr. Kinneir says, that it is perhaps the most beautiful and highly-favored region in the world: and, though this eulogium seems too rapturous, other travelers praise the climate. An anonymous female writer says, that it resembles that of Naples; that the spring begins in the middle of January; that most of the fruit-trees are in blossom in the following month; and that vegetation in general is uncommonly vigorous and luxuriant.

The people, more particularly those of the higher class, resemble the Persians in their manners. They are as fond of imitating the customs, and speaking the language of that nation, as many of the Europeans are of copying the manners of the French. Some are now disposed to court the Russians by imitation; and it appears that they have borrowed from the latter the use of the cymbal and the flute, in addition to their own ancient instruments, the harp and the trumpet. They are courteous and hospitable to strangers, and display the appearance, if not the reality, of friendship. They formerly had an inclination for poetry and other branches of literature; but that taste appears to have declined among them. In arts and manufactures they are not very expert; for they make few articles, except carpets, in a skilful or workmanlike manner.

Among the Georgians the men are tall, have pleasing features, and are well-proportioned; and the beauty and grace of the women are proverbial over the East. The latter are not so strictly watched, or guarded with such jealousy, as the females of Persia or Turkey; nor, on the other hand, do they enjoy that freedom which is allowed to their sex in Europe. When they appear abroad, they wear long veils, and thus avoid the gaze of curiosity. In their marriages, it is not customary for the intended bridegroom to see the lady before the nuptial day; but, though this custom precludes that union which arises from the strong impulse of love, it is expected that a widow should lament with the most outrageous grief the death of her husband.

With regard to religion, the Georgians follow the general system of the Greek church; but they are not so strict as to withhold toleration from any particular sect. They boast that their ancestors were Christians as early as the beginning of the fourth century, when they were under the government of an independent prince; and they also boast of the number of their churches, as if they had 3000 of them; but many of these buildings are in ruins, others are small and insignificant, and the priests are in general very poor.

Teflis, the Georgian capital, is situated in a valley between the Kour and that mountain on which the citadel stands; and it has a considerable suburb on the other side of the river. The streets are very narrow and irregular: the houses, except those which have been erected since the Russian conquest, are far from being well-built, and only the best of them have glazed windows; and the greatest part of the town is usually in a most dirty state, and some of the warm baths are so foul as to shock the delicacy of all decent strangers. These baths are eagerly frequented by both sexes, not merely for the cure of the rheumatism and other disorders, but for pleasure and gratification. There are some extensive bazars in the town, and several caravanserais, and a brisk trade occasionally enlivens the place, to which even the commodities of India find their way. The population amounts to 20,000, of whom 150 are styled princes, while the ministers of religion are about the same number: these officiate in a very ancient, spacious, and stately cathedral, and in thirty-five other churches.

By the treaty which was concluded at Kainargi, in 1774, between the Russians and Turks, Georgia, over which the Porte had long domineered (as the Persians did before), was declared independent, while Mingrelia, sometimes considered as a part of that territory, was left under the Turkish yoke. At the same time, the two Kabardahs, or divisions of Circassia, were placed under the control of Russia; but the people refused to submit to this arrangement; and it was not before the year 1779 that they were so humbled by the victories obtained over them

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in the field, as to swear inviolable fidelity. Heraclius, the Georgian prince, dreading the hostilities of the Turks and Persians, solicited the protection of the empress Catharine, and became her vassal. Solomon, who ruled over Imeretia (a country lying to the west of Georgia Proper), left his principality, by his death, a prey to civil war, which furnished the emperor Paul with a pretence for farther encroachment; and Alexander confirmed and completed the acquisition. He pretended to govern the people by their own laws: but he took care that the native members of the administration should be overawed and influenced by Russian colleagues, and subjected to the penal code of their new masters.

CIRCASSIA has been usually considered as a part of Asia, though it may more properly be termed an European country, being situated to the northward of the Caucasian mountains. That remarkable chain is in various parts so elevated, as to be covered with snow during the greater part of the year; and, as it extends over the whole space between the Euxine and Caspian seas, it forms a natural geographical division of Asia from the south-eastern angle of Europe. The inhabitants of the two Kabardahs are the proper Circassians; but the Lesghis and many other tribes are included under the general designation. They are handsome in their persons, bold and adventurous in their dispositions. Many of their women are particularly beautiful; but Klaproth denies that the seraglio of the grand signor is chiefly supplied with them. The slave trade which the Circassians carry on, he says, is almost exclusively confined to the male sex. Some of the tribes are rovers, and, when they remove to another district, they are very quick and dexterous in erecting huts of plaited osiers, cemented with mud or mortar. If there should be no water in the spot which they select, they conduct a canal by embankments from the nearest rivulet, in which operation they are as expert as the Tartars of the Crimea. They build their habitations in a circle, within which they station their cattle at night; and the whole village is encompassed with a fence.

A feudal aristocracy subsists among the Circassians. Under the princes or chieftains are the nobles; to these the knights are subordinate; and the common people are obliged or expected to serve their superiors. But there is little regularity in the government; and, amidst a rude people, the chain of subordination is not easily preserved unbroken. Like the savages of North-America, they are as resentful and vindictive as they are hospitable and friendly. When they are not employed in agriculture or in pasturage, they follow the chase, or undertake predatory expeditions. They rarely appear unarmed; and, when completely equipped, they have, beside fire-arms and a sabre and dagger, a cuirass of iron over a wadded coat, a helmet, and thick coverings for the hands and arms; but the Cosacks will sometimes, even when riding with the utmost rapidity, raise the coat of mail with the point of a pike, and transfix the wearer. Their submission to the Russian emperor is not very servile: for they are neither taxed nor compelled to serve in his army; and they sometimes pass beyond the barrier upon the Terek, to commit depredations in the open country. With regard to religion, the majority profess the Mohammedan system; but they are very inattentive to its ceremonies and injunctions.

The present capital of that province in which Circassia is nominally included, is Georgiewsk, which was founded in 1777. It is well fortified; but the houses are so slightly built, that they do not properly secure the inmates from the piercing winds of the neighbouring plain. The climate is apparently fine; but, though there are no morasses in the vicinity,

malignant fevers and pestilential disorders frequently and destructively prevail.

The inhabitants of Asiatic Russia are composed of many different nations, principally Tartarian and Monghol tribes. Many of these communities now live in fixed houses and villages, and pay tribute like other subjects. Until lately, they were not admitted into the Russian armies, but now they make good soldiers. Many of the tribes retain their ancient habits, and live a wandering life.

The character of the Tartars of Kasan may serve for that of all the Mohammedan 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 honor, 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 labor, retirement, modesty, and submission. The men take great care of the education of their children, who are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, in the principles of their religion, and in sound morality. Even the smallest village has its chapel, school, priest, and schoolmaster. The best Tartarian academies in the Russian empire are those of Kasan, 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, beside what those little libraries contain, are acquainted with the history of their own people, and that of the circumjacent states.

The Tartarian citizens of Kasan, Orenburg, 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 have extensive business, which their parsimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kasan they make a trade of preparing what is called in England Morocco leather. The villages of these people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Most of them also contain tanners, shoemakers, tailors, dyers, smiths and carpenters.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartarian citizens and villagers of Astracan are perfectly similar to those of the Kasanians. In the city of Astracan they have a large magazine for goods, and carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Persians, Indians, Bokharians: and their manufactures of leather, cotton, camelots, and silks, are in a very thriving state.

The Chowashes dwell in the governments of Kasan and Orenburg. They never live in towns, but assemble in small villages or 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. Among their marriage ceremonies one is mentioned which seems intended to show the authority that a husband ought to have over his wife. On the wedding night the bride is obliged to pull off the bridegroom'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 Kasan. Some of them are Christians; but many are pagans, though

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The Ostiaks, who are likewise a Finnish race, are one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were subject to Russia, they were regularly governed by princes of their own nation. They divide themselves into different stocks or tribes, and choose their chiefs from the progeny of their ancient rulers. These maintain peace and good order, and superintend the payment of the taxes.

The Voguls are rather below the middle stature. Their principal occupation is the chase, in which they discover great eagerness and address; using indiscriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the spear. They are also skilful in contriving traps and snares for various kinds of game.

The Kalmucks are a branch of the Mogul or Monghol nation, which originally inhabited the country to the north of China. They are in general raw-boned and stout. Their faces are so flat, that the skull of a Kalmuck may be easily known from others. They have thick lips, a small nose, and a short chin, with a complexion of a sallow 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 consists of animals, tame and wild: and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of distemper or age, though the flesh may 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 eat freely, but can abstain for a long time. 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 Tongusians, who are of the race of the Manchews, form a very numerous nation. They are under the middle stature, well made, and of a good mien. Their sight and hearing are remarkably acute and delicate; 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 configuration of the trees and stones they meet with, and can enable others to take the same route by such descriptions. They are alert on horseback, good hunters, and very dexterous in the use of the bow, or the rifle. Captain Cochrane says, "They are characteristically honest and friendly, robbery being considered by them as unpardonable. They are thankful for kind treatment, but are exceedingly irascible, and will permit no one to abuse them. They bear fatigue, cold, and privations, to an extraordinary degree.—The dress of each sex consists of a jacket and trowsers of the rein-deer skin, with the hair inside, and stockings and boots of the same material. They also wear caps and gloves of leather, and guards for the forehead, ears, nose, and chin, and their beds are made of the skin of a bear or a deer, with a sort of blanket lined with fur, in the shape of a bag, in which their legs and feet are enclosed."

The Kamchadals have a lively imagination, a strong memory, and a striking talent for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fishing. The chase 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: they put a high value upon them; and they travel in small carriages drawn by dogs. They believed the immortality of the soul,

even before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Christian religion. They are superstitious to extravagance, and strangely 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 thus contributed to the civilisation of the inhabitants.

[**CHIEF TOWNS.**] Astracan, situated on an island formed by the Volga, near its entrance into the Caspian sea, is a large and populous city, containing about 65,000 inhabitants. It is about a league in circumference, and is surrounded by a wall. It is well supplied with churches, and is the seat of a Russian and an Armenian archbishop.

Kasan is occupied by about 40,000 persons. It is situated partly on a declivity, and partly on a swampy plain. Many parts of the town are well-built, and it exhibits some handsome churches, one of which gave rise to the admired Kasan church at Petersburg, though its architecture would rather seem to denote a theatre.

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 was built lower down on the Ural, in 1740. It is now a place of considerable trade.

Tobolsk, the capital of Western Siberia, stands at the confluence of the Irtysh and the Tobol. It consists of two towns, the upper and lower, both of which are secured by walls, towers, and bastions. The population scarcely exceeds 15,000, and the trade declines in consequence of the rivalry of Irkutsk; but it is an agreeable abode, because the inhabitants are social and friendly, places of amusement common, and provisions abundant.

Irkutsk, the seat of government for Eastern Siberia, has wide streets and respectable public buildings; but most of the houses are constructed of wood. It has a flourishing traffic, as the caravans which trade between Russia and China pass through it.—Tomsk, on the Toura, is also a commercial town, containing about 9000 inhabitants. Yakutsk, on the Lena, is an ill-built town, but by no means destitute of trade. Okotsk has about 1500 inhabitants, whose maritime situation renders it convenient for many of them to become shipbuilders, and finds employment for others in salt-works.

The towns in the peninsula of Kamchatka are poor and insignificant, except New-Kamchatka and Bolcheretsk, which make a decent appearance.

The nearest town to the Chinese frontier is Kiakta, which is neatly and regularly built of wood, and contains 4000 inhabitants. At this spot a mere brook separates the two empires: the Chinese have a small unfortified town near it, and no marks of jealousy appear between the traders on each side.

[**MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.**] There are manufactures of silk, 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. To Persia, woollen cloth, linen, furs, iron, steel, and lead, are sent from the same city; and the imports are silk, cotton, tapestry, drugs, gold, pearls, and diamonds. The principal trade of Siberia is in

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sables and other furs, which are purchased with avidity by the Chinese, who in return bring tea, silk, and other commodities.

RELIGION.] Many of the Tartars, since the Russians have been settled in their country, have become converts to Christianity; but the majority are still attached to their old superstitions.

Tobolsk is an archbishopric; Irkutsk and Nerzhinsk are episcopal sees.

ANTIQUITIES.] In the environs of Astracan the ruins of the old city are very visible; and the rubbish and ramparts of another respectable town still exist near Tzaritin, on the left shore of the Volga. Below the mouth of the Kama, which flows into that 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 this spot, on the Cheremcham, are found ruins more injured by the depredations of time; they are those of Boulmer, an ancient and considerable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its ruins the small town of Bilyairsk. In the fortress of Kasan is a monument of the 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 Kasanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the strong ramparts of the old city of Kasan. Near the Ufa are cemeteries and sepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are still seen near Tobolsk. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulf in the Om; and near the mouth of the Ural are the ditches of the city Sarachik. In many parts of Siberia, particularly near the Yenisei, 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 earthen-ware, 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, had no regular establishments there before the middle of the sixteenth, when Strogonoff, a merchant of Archangel, having found means to open a trade for furs with Siberia, the czar then on the throne, John Basilowitz, 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 Cosacks, 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 acquisitions, he applied to Russia for aid and protection, and sent a deputation to do homage to the czar as his sovereign. In the course of two or three years, almost all the Cosacks were killed in repeated battles, and Yermac was drowned in attempting to leap into a boat. The Russians, at length, after many conflicts, secured to themselves the possession of this extensive country, and by the middle of the seventeenth century had advanced to the 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 Nerzhinsk, concluded in 1689, by which the Argoun was made the boundary of the Russian and Chinese territories. The limits of the former were enlarged in 1727. Kamchatka was reduced under the power of the Russians about the year 1711.

ASIATIC ISLANDS BELONGING TO THE RUSSIANS.

THE sea which separates the southern point of the peninsula of Kamchatka from Japan, contains a number of islands in a position from north-east to 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 the small ones are unpeopled. They differ much from each other, in respect both to their situation and natural constitution. The forests in the northern isles are almost entirely composed of pines, those in the southern produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In some of them are bears and foxes. Sea-otters appear on the all these islands, as well as whales, sea-horses, seals, and other aquatic 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 Kamchadals. The northern islands acknowledge the sovereignty of the emperor of Russia; but those of the south pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians display much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hospitable. They are chiefly employed in hunting, taking sea-animals and whales, and catching fowl. Their canoes are made of the wood that their forests produce, or that the sea throws upon their shores. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make clothes. In the northern isles they sew, and make cloth 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, sabres, different stuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, all sorts of trinkets, and small ware.

Between the eastern coast of Kamchatka, and the western coast of America, are various groupes of islands, divided by Mr. Muller into four principal groupes; the first two of which are called the ALEUTIAN ISLANDS. The first groupe, which is called by some of the islanders Sasignam, comprehends, 1. Behring's island, which is 90 miles in length and 25 in breadth; 2. Copper island: 3. Otma; 4. Samyra, or Shemyia; 5. Anakta. The second groupe is called Khao, and comprises Immak and seven other islands. The third general name is Negho, and comprehends the islands known to the Russians under the name of Andreevanoffski Ostrova; sixteen of which are mentioned by geographers. The fourth groupe is called Kavalang, and also includes sixteen islands; which are denominated Lysic Ostrova, or the *Fox Islands*.

Some of these islands are only inhabited occasionally, and for several months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but some have a great number of inhabitants, who constantly reside in them. Copper Island received its name from the copper which the sea throws upon its coasts. The inhabitants of these islands are in general of a short stature, with stout 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

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The Fox islands are so called from the great number of black, grey, and red foxes with which they abound. The dress of a native consists of a cap, and a fur coat which reaches down to the knees. Some of them wear common caps of a parti-colored 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 screen, 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 cap. 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 in societies of several families united, which form what they call a race, who, in case of an attack, or defence, 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, 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 generally 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 can go barefooted through the winter without 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 they set fire to train-oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They have some share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but, if an injury, or even a suspicion only, should rouse them from this phlegmatic state, they become inflexible and furious, taking the most violent revenge, without 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.

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	between	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1050 } Breadth 750 }	{	36 and 53 North latitude. 55 and 72 East longitude.	} 500,000.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] ON the east, the mountains of Belur separate this part of Tartary from Little Bokharia, which is now subject to the Chinese; on the south, the mountains of Gaur divide it from Persia and the provinces of Candahar and Caboul, in Hindoostan. Its boundaries, on the west, are the Caspian sea, the river Ural or Yaik, and the Uralian mountains; and, on the north, the Russian dominions in Asia.

MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS.] The principal mountains of this country are the Belur Tag, the ancient Imäus, and the mountains of Argoun 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 Gihoun, and the Sir, or Sihoun. The former rises in the mountains of Belur, and falls into the lake of Aral, after a course of about 900 miles; the latter has its source among the same mountains, and falls into the same lake, after a course of about 550 miles.

METALS, MINERALS.] Gold, silver, iron, copper, vitriol, and sal ammoniac, are among the products of this country. Rich quarries of lapis lazulia bound in Great Bokharia, and several kinds of valuable stones, particularly rubies, are found there; but the natives have neither skill nor industry to derive much advantage from the mineral riches of their country.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The climate appears to be temperate and salubrious; and the soil, in the southern parts at least, very productive; for the grass, it is said, sometimes grows there 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 Bokharia.

ANIMALS.] The animals here are nearly the same as in Tibet, the north of Persia, and other adjacent countries. The grunting ox, chamois, and wild ass, are found among the mountains.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Kirghises, who inhabit the northern part of this country, lead a wandering life. They consist of three great hordes, each of which has its particular khan. They dwell in portable huts, and remove to different places in search of pasturage, which constitutes their principal occupation. Many of them have horses, camels, cattle, sheep, and goats, in great abundance, and those who have none commit depredations in strong parties upon the rest: this practice they do not deem criminal; but, when an individual robs, he is punished with death.

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 have generally elegant saddles, handsome housings, and ornamented bridles. They wear a vest, a short robe, and very long trousers. They are addicted to gluttony, and they also smoke tobacco to excess. Men, women, and children, all smoke and take snuff, which they usually keep in little horns fastened to their

girdles. The rest of the people accompanies them round their quarters.

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girdles. The great and wealthy pass their lives 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.

Their chief amusements are wrestling, racing, shooting at a mark, and hunting. Many (says Nazarof) go to the chase with dogs and large eagles: they take the latter before them on the saddle, with the head covered. As soon as they see a hare, a fox, or a wild goat, they take off the bird's hood, when it instantly pounces on its prey, seizes it in its talons, and holds it until its master comes up. They are so fond of these birds, that a hunter will sometimes give several horses, and even Kalmuck captives, for one of them. The women frequently join the men on these occasions, and also in the field of hostility.

The same author distinguishes the tribes of Turkestan from the Kirghises, and represents them as less bold and spirited, but more civilised and industrious, and, though crafty, more upright in their dealings.

The Usbecks, who inhabit the southern parts of this country, are addicted to predatory warfare, and frequently make sudden incursions into the Persian provinces. Many of these Tartars reside in tents in the summer, but take up their abode in the towns and villages during the winter. Those of Balk are the most civilised, and carry on a considerable trade with Persia and Hindoostan. The Bokharians belong to this race; but the Tanjecks seem to be of a different origin. They have fair complexions and well-formed countenances, and their women are praised for their beauty. They are more stationary than the Usbecks, and more attached to agriculture and mechanic occupations than to pasturage.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.] Samarcand, situated on the southern bank of the river Sogd, was anciently Timour's seat of empire. 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 which is now in a dilapidated state; but the town is reviving under the government of the present khan.

Of Bokhara, which stands on the same river, the houses are meanly built; but many of the mosques, caravanserais, and colleges, are handsome structures; and the town flourishes in population, as it is said to contain 80,000 inhabitants. Balk, on the Dehash, is also large and populous, with houses of brick and stone, and a palace or castle built almost entirely of marble.

Tashkend, formerly the capital of an independent state, is still a considerable town, situated in a fertile country, and containing within the walls many fine vineyards and very productive gardens. It is a place of great resort, both for traffic and for amusement.

Khokand is a large city, built in the midst of a well-cultivated territory, the soil of which is remarkably impregnated with salt. It abounds with mosques; and in its vicinity, as well as in many other parts of Tartary, are curious ruins of ancient buildings.

Khyvah is the chief town of Khowarasm, which was a flourishing kingdom in the middle ages. It is a place of some trade; and we are sorry to observe, that slaves are among the articles of traffic. The male inhabitants are prone to sensual indulgence, and are in general rude and uncivilised; and the women, though handsome in their persons, are not very elegant in their manners.

TRADE.] The Kirghises 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 to them by the Russians; but they procure them, by the same kind of barter, from the southern parts of the country.

The Bokharians are a very commercial people: their caravans travel through a great part of Asia, and traffic with Persia, Tibet, China, and Russia. Their lamb-skins are in great request; they also dispose of wool, cotton stuffs of their own manufacture, vests, and the silken articles of Hindoostan, beside salt-petre and dried fruit.

GOVERNMENT.] This is, for the most part, despotic; and the two most powerful princes are the khans of Khokand and Great-Bokharia.

RELIGION.] The religion of almost all the Tartarian tribes is that of Mohammed, according to the tenets of the sect of Omar.

LEARNING.] The reader may be surprised to find this article in an account of the Tartars; yet nothing is more certain, than that under Genghiz and Timour, and their early descendants, Western Tartary was the seat of learning and politeness, as well as of empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever so splendid, falls short of that of those princes. The encouragement of learning was the first care of the prince, and it was generally cultivated by his own relatives and the grandees. They wrote in the Persian and Arabic tongues. The name of Ulug Beg, the grandson of Timour, is well known to astronomers; and Abulgazi, the khan of Khowarasm, wrote the history of his country. Samarcand was a celebrated university for eastern science, and, even in the last century, was a flourishing school for Mohammedan literature.

ANTIQUITIES.] These consist of the ruins of edifices erected by Genghiz, Timour, and their successors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently found, which either surrounded small towns, now demolished, or were intended for the defence of camps, forts, or castles, the vestiges of which are sometimes discovered. Many of them are still in tolerable preservation. In the uncultivated tracts occupied by the Kirghises, are many relics of opulent cities. Some gold and silver coins have likewise been found, with several manuscripts, neatly written, some of which are in the language of Tibet, while others are of a doubtful complexion.

HISTORY.] In our account of Chinese Tartary, we shall take some notice of the history of this country.

THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

THIS empire includes China Proper, Chinese Tartary, and Tibet; the Chinese emperors of the Tartarian race having, within the last century, greatly extended their authority and influence over the wandering hordes inhabiting the countries to the north and the west of China. We shall treat separately of these divisions.

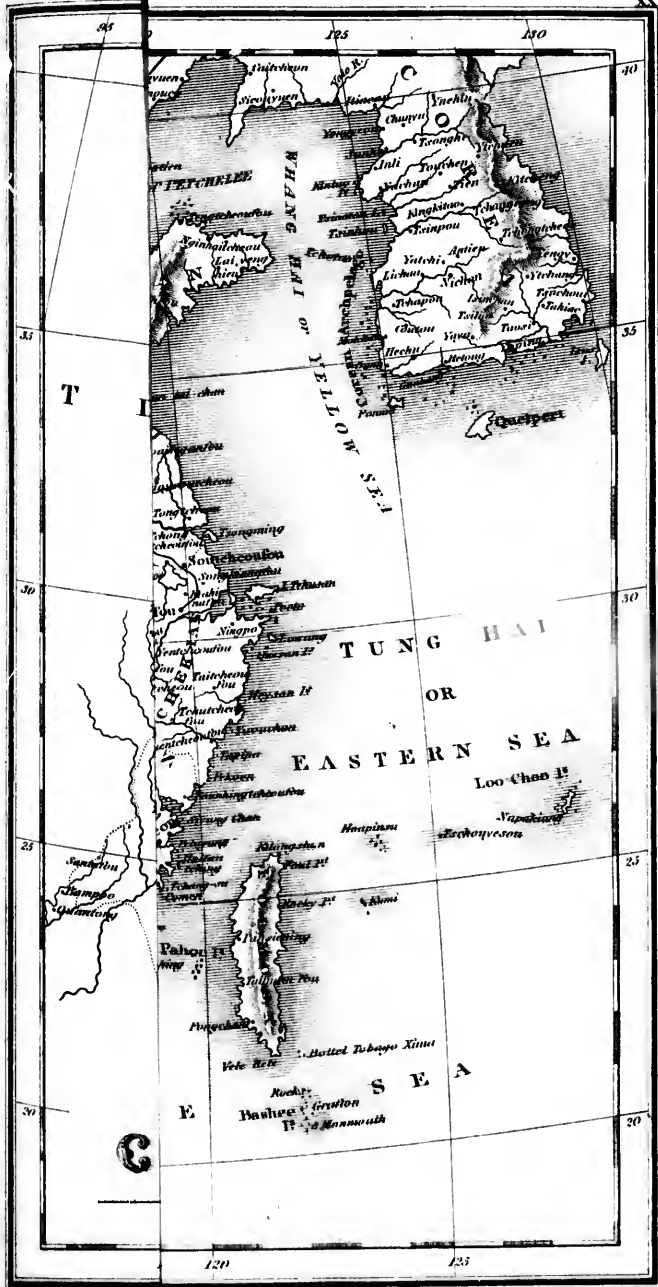
CHINA PROPER.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

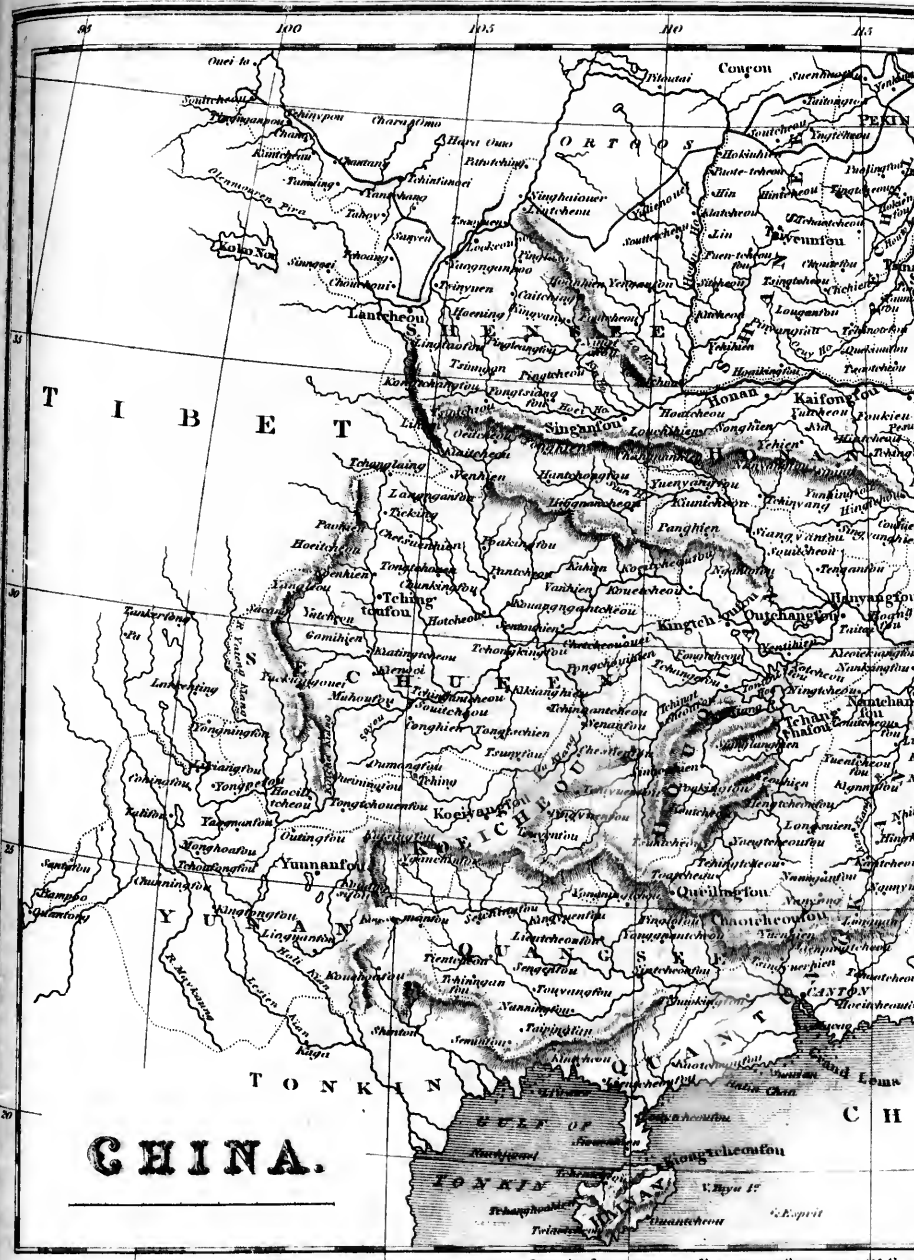
Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1330 }	between { 22 and 41 North latitude. } 100 and 121 East longitude. }	1,100,000
Breadth 1030 }		

NAME.] The Chinese call their country *Chong Qua*, or the kingdom of the centre, because they consider China not only as situated in the





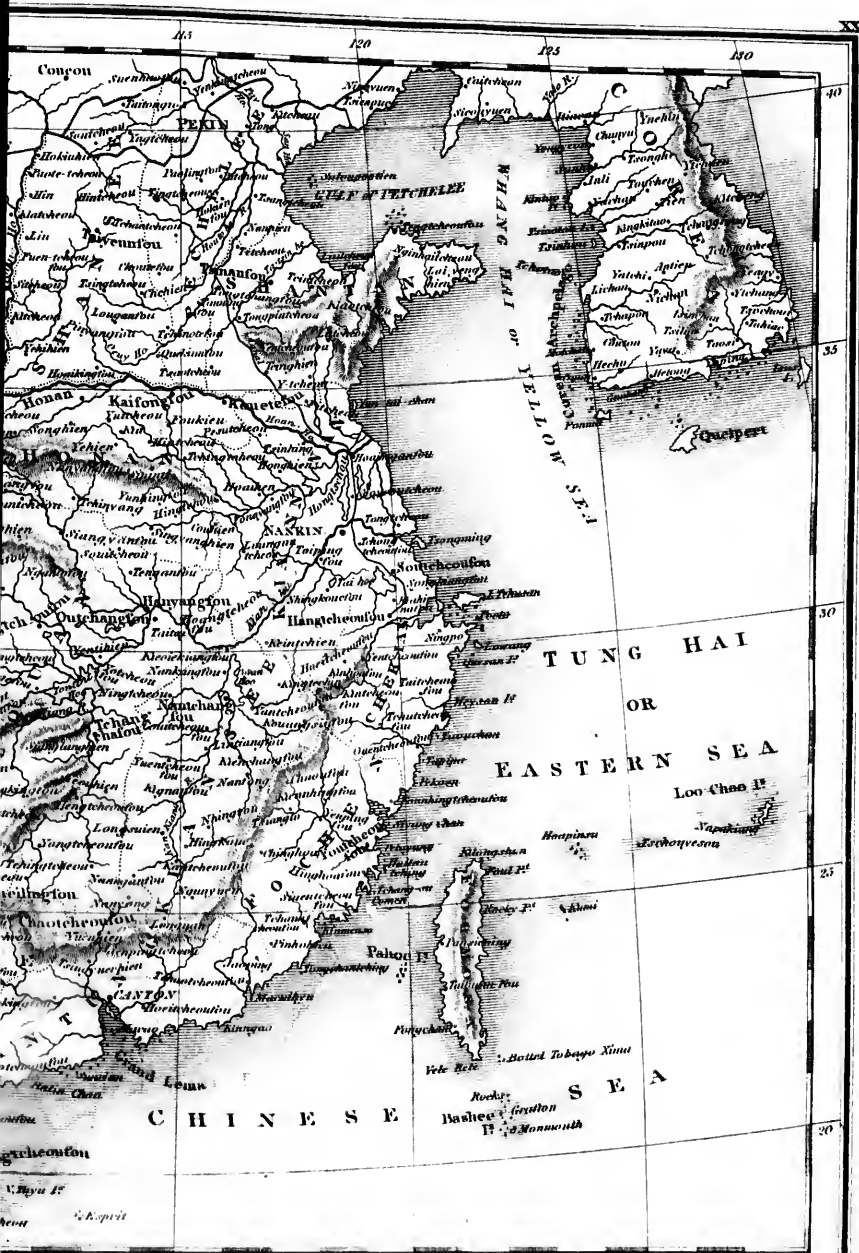
Jas. Cox's Nautical Chart of 1852



CHINA.

110 105 Longitude 110 East from 105 Degrees

London Published May 1st 1877 J. Mansford & the other Printers



East from 165 Greenwich 120 125

W. 1827 by J. Murray, & the other Proprietors.

W. 1827 by J. Murray, & the other Proprietors.

middle of the
China (in the
ancient monar-
chies before
the invention of
silking silk.

BOUNDARIES.
The Great Wall
wall on the north
America, on the
Tartarian coast.

DIVISIONS.
The country is di-
vided into sev-
teen provinces
and opulence
but it is not
very fertile.

The popula-
tion is increas-
ing rapidly. The
argument is that
there are more
than 151 peo-
ple to the square
mile a calculation
population of

FACE OF THE
country in Gen-
eral is level. The
highest mountains,
which are in the
Chekian hills
of Kian-nan, are
numerous in
the country.

FORESTS.
The country is
encumbered with
forests, producing
timber for
ornament and
fuel, and
down, can be
used for paper.

LAKES.
The largest
lake, in the
north, is the
conference
leagues in
length. It is
markable for
method of
navigation,
sometimes
which, at
times, it
in their boats
does not
from swamps
pleased to
this occasion
lake, with
by it.

RIVERS.
The Kiang
the Kiang
by the moun-
tains of
The Kiang
city of Nanchang
the mouth
There are

middle of the world, but as its most distinguished region. 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 word *chin*, signifying silk.

BOUNDARIES.] China is bounded by Chinese Tartary and a long wall on the north; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North America, on the east; by the Chinese sea, on the south; and by the Tartarian countries and Tibet on the west.

DIVISION AND POPULATION.] The empire is divided into seventeen provinces, each of which might, for its extent, fertility, populousness, and opulence, rank as a distinct kingdom. The largest is that of Sechueen; but it is not so populous as Pechelee, in which stands the capital.

The population of China has been calculated at 333 millions; but all the arguments of sir George Staunton in favor of that estimate are fallacious and unsatisfactory, and a subtraction of one half will still allow more than 151 persons for each square mile, though this will be deemed too low a calculation by those who consider the far superior (proportional) population of England and Holland.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS.] The appearance of the country in China is very diversified, as every extensive region may be expected to be. The provinces of Yunan, Koeicheou, Sechueen, and Fochien, are so mountainous as greatly to obstruct cultivation; and that of Chekian has lofty and precipitous mountains on the west. In the province of Kian-nan there is a district full of high mountains, which are also numerous in the provinces of Shensee and Shansee. The greater part of the country, however, is level, and most assiduously cultivated.

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, indeed, none to grow but for ornament and use, or on the sides of mountains, whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

LAKES.] China contains several extensive lakes, as that of Tontint-hoo, in the province of Hou-quan, which is about eighty leagues in circumference, and that of Poyan-hoo, in the province of Kian-see, thirty leagues in circuit. The lakes of Weechan-hoo and Tai-hoo 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 on this occasion is of a very light construction, and is often carried to the lake, 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 discolorment by the mud which its waters bring down, has its source among the mountains of Tibet, and falls into the Yellow Sea, after a course of 1850 miles. The Kian-ku rises near the source of the Hoan-ho, and, after passing the city of Nankin, falls into the sea about one hundred miles to the south of the mouth of the Hoan-ho, having traversed a course of 2000 miles. There are many 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 stones; and they are so deep, that they carry large vessels, and sometimes extend above 1000 miles in length. Those vessels are fitted up for all the conveniences of life; and it has been thought by some (though it is evidently a gross error) that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. The canals are furnished with stone quays, and sometimes with bridges of an amazing construction. The navigation is slow, and the vessels are sometimes drawn by men. No precautions are neglected that can be formed by art or perseverance, for the safety of the passengers, if a canal be 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 high degree, as well as fertile, in places which 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 *peton*, is peculiar to that country; but we know of no extraordinary quality which it possesses. Tutenag is another peculiar metal, a mine of which, in the province of Hou-quan, 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 partially and slightly worked; and the currency of that metal is supplied by the grains which the people find in the sand of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Honan.

Mines of iron, lead, and tin, must be very common, since these metals are sold at a low rate in all parts of China; and it appears, from authentic documents, that the use of iron in particular was very ancient in that country. Quarries and coal-mines also abound in almost every province. Coals are found in great plenty in the mountains of the provinces of Shensee, Shansee, and Pechelee; 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 according to the situation of the places. Toward 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; and agriculture is carried to a high degree of excellence.

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 that country.

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 which it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, and, when manufactured with oil, answers the purpose of a candle; but it has a strong smell, and does not afford a clear light. Of the other trees peculiar to China, some yield a kind of flour; some partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of some is poisonous, but affords fine varnish. After all that can be said of these, and other beautiful and useful trees, the Chinese, notwithstanding their industry, are so wedded to their ancient

customs, that the same may be from being so delicate because the Chinese know little of experience.

The tea-plant is pruned to prevent (George Staunton) Fochien. Its perpetually collecting its leaves the course of the most from the root rose-tree, and the that of the rose. concurred in affirm which it grew, and as well as upon the widest leaves, which lowest classes of manipulation, still to most fresh plant essential flavor, without diminution before the through the finger assumed before it afterwards placed thinner than can aid, in the count purpose. Indeed chief application placed over a cherry leaves, rendering tea are thought to plucked, and which

The Portuguese introduced among it in the first act in 1660. Catho common at his universal remedy to be merely a brought to Europe this instance also counts of China.

ANIMALS.] The bear, buffalo, a very small breed there, beside several of England, but the asses are fine animals.

CURIOSITIES present themselves under preceding

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, or indeed of America. This is because the Chinese never practise grafting or inoculation of trees, and know little of experimental gardening.

The tea-plant deserves more particular notice. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent luxuriance. "Vast tracts of hilly land (says sir George Staunton) are planted with it, particularly in the province of Fochen. 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, 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 flavor, 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 color and astringency of green tea are 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 merely a common root, and is abundant 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.

ANIMALS.] The lion is not found in China; but the tiger, rhinoceros, bear, buffalo, and wild boar, are natives of the country. Camels of a very small breed, some of which are not higher than horses, are found there, beside several species of deer. The horses are smaller than those of England, coarse, and ill-shaped, and are not very strong or active; but the asses are large and well-shaped, and the mules in general are fine animals.

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 par-

ticular 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 the 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 one mountain to another, and consist only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long and 500 high, though a single arch, and joins two mountains; and some in the interior parts of the empire are said to be still more stupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next species of artificial curiosities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman style of architecture, yet they are superb and beautiful, and erected to the memory of their great men, with vast labor and expense. They are said in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. The sepulchral monuments make likewise a great figure. The towers, the models of which are now so common in Europe, under the name of pagodas, are striking embellishments to the face of the country. They seem to be constructed in regular order, and all of them are finished with exquisite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nankin, 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. The 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 which they contain. The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which give name to one of their principal festivals. A bell at Pekin 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 destitute 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. They have particular ideas of beauty; they pluck up the hairs from the lower part of the face by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few straggling ones to serve for a beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of the head, and, like Mohammedans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion, toward the north, is fair, but in 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 labor.

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 middle and rather truncated. been accidentally bandaged like the deed, much torn imitation of ladies stop by pressure to infancy, and, let bend the others, here to, as if but said, indeed, that among the lower

The exterior consists of various bending or stiffer all which are common; while thought to be little monies are once familiarity.—In bashfulness, but deemed themselves appearance could

By some cens presented as the tural quickness which they deal ease, particularly can cheat a Chinese prevalent among benevolence is financial forms This picture is c is, in a great m

DRESS.] T entirely under th that distinguish the blood, have entitled to wear in general they for mourning, every appearance the common pe always compos heads, of the fa with jewels. T vest and sash, cotton, and a fancy or fashion except, perhaps the head. Th linen, a waistc with furs. A gathered round

"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 a higher rank, among whom it is the custom to stop by pressure the growth of the ancle 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 demeanor of the Chinese is very ceremonious. It consists of various evolutions of the body, and inclinations of the head, in bending or stiffening the knees, 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, these 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 deemed themselves the superiors, and as if nothing in their manners or appearance could be deficient or objectionable.

By some censorious speakers and writers, the Chinese have been represented as the most dishonest people in the world, employing their natural quickness only to improve the arts of cheating the nations with which they deal, especially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great ease, particularly the English, while they observe that none but a Chinese can cheat a Chinese. Duplicity and deceit, it is said, are notoriously prevalent among them; the cordiality of friendship is very rare; true benevolence is far from being the general feeling; and exterior and mechanical forms are more attended to than the actual practice of virtue. This picture is overcharged in point of coloring; but the representation is, in a great measure, founded on truth.

DRESS.] This varies according to the distinctions of rank, and is entirely under the regulation of the law, which has even fixed the colors 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 hue to which the common people are restricted, 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 persons 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 in the apparel of the ladies there is little variety; 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. The various parts

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, between five and six leagues in compass. The walls and gates 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 not embellished with statues or 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 of large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar. Most of the streets are built in a direct line; the largest are about 120 feet broad, and above two miles in length; but the houses are poorly built in front, and very low; most of them having only a ground floor, and few exceeding one story above it.

Of all the buildings in this great city, the most remarkable is the imperial palace; the grandeur of which does not consist so much in the nobleness and elegance of the architecture, as in the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly disposed: for the walls not only enclose the emperor's house, but also a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the sovereign; but the houses of the courtiers and artisans are low and ill contrived. The front of the palace, it is said, 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 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 barks sail on these pieces of water; and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are said to resemble 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. In the middle of a lake is a rocky island, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a 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 population of Peking is supposed to be about two millions. The low houses of the town seem scarcely sufficient for so vast a population; but very little room is occupied by a 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 enclosure 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.

Nankin was the royal residence till the fifteenth century, (its name signifying the *southern court*, as *Pekin* does the *northern*); but it is now a declining city, and a large space within its circuit is uninhabited.

It is regularly built, and is a neat if not handsome town. Near the entrance are two temples, one of which is rendered interesting by the skillful execution of the figures of about twenty Chinese philosophers and saints, surrounding a great hall. This city has obtained celebrity by the porcelain tower already mentioned, and by the manufacture of nankin.

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 tops 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 are pleasantly diversified with small towns, villages, high towers, temples, the seats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered by 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 within each there is a guard-house. The streets of Canton are very straight (though generally narrow), and are 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 are so crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them. 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. It is computed that there are in this city, and its suburbs, 1,100,000 persons, and there are often 5000 trading vessels lying before the city.

PUBLIC ROADS.] The security of travelers, 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 the rulers of 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 in some of the northern. Valleys have been filled up, and passages have been cut through rocks and mountains, in order to make commodious high-ways, 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 intrusion 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 traveler may shelter himself from the inclemency of the winter, or the excessive heat of the summer.

There is no deficiency 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.

Many turrets, called post-houses, are 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 so situated, that intelligence can be communicated by signals exhibited on their summits; and thus the court is informed, in the speediest manner, of whatever disturbance may happen in the most remote parts of the empire.

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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 lamp-black. The manufacture of that earthen-ware, generally known by the name of China, was long a secret in Europe; but it is now well known that the principal material is a prepared pulverised earth; and we may add, that several European nations far exceed the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity. The Chinese silks are generally plain or flowered gauze; and they are said to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing the silk-worm 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.

The Chinese princes have not been disposed to encourage foreign trade. They consider their country as so highly favored by nature and the genius of the people, that they are not in want of the produce or manufactures of other regions: yet they have condescended to admit trading vessels, but not without arbitrary limitations. Canton is the only port at which European ships are received; and the nature and extent of each branch of trade are cautiously settled by the government. With the Indian islands the Chinese carry on trade in their own junks, and import edible birds'-nests (a curious kind of luxury), the fins of sharks, spice, and tin.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The original plan of the Chinese government was patriarchal, almost in the strictest sense of the word. Complete 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 great officers of state were looked upon as his substitutes; and the degrees of submission, due from the inferior ranks to the superior, were settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision, and in a manner that to us seems highly ridiculous. 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 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 toward the capital. On all the days of new and full moon, similar incense is burned, and offerings are made before the throne by the officers of the household in all the imperial palaces.

The governors of the provinces have unlimited authority; and of those officers who have been called mandarins, or commanders, by the Portuguese, but in the language of the country *eunans*, there are nine classes, from the judge of the village to the prime minister. But almost all the judges and magistrates are corrupt; and the Chinese government, like most others, is more specious in theory than commendable in practice.

The Chinese laws are ancient and numerous; but those regarding

property are insufficient to give it security: hence, the talent of invention is seldom exercised beyond suggesting the means of providing for the first necessities and the most pressing wants. A man, indeed, is afraid to be considered as rich, well knowing that some of the rapacious officers of the state would find legal means of extorting his riches from him.

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. 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 official statement, to 36,614,328 ounces of silver, or 12,204,776*l*. A land-tax has been substituted for 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 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 public revenues. Some taxes, such as that upon rice, are received in kind; but several species of grain, on which many of the poorer classes of the people principally subsist, are exempted from taxation.

From the latest account that we have been able to procure, the imperial revenues are greatly inferior to the amount above-stated, not being more than 32 millions sterling in money and produce.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] China is at this time a far more powerful empire than it was before its conquest by the Eastern Tartars. This is the effect of the policy of Chun-chi, 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 thus 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 favor.

It has been affirmed, that the total of the infantry in the imperial service is one million, and that 800,000 cavalry are also upon the establishment; but we learn, from a more correct statement, that the force of the first species amounts to 822,000, and the second to 410,000, while 31,000 men compose the marine force.

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. No priests are paid, preferred, or encouraged, by the government. The Chinese have no day peculiarly set apart for divine service, nor have they 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

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clergy; but no lands are subject to ecclesiastical tithes. The emperor is of one faith; many of the mandarins are 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; if they wish to marry, to go upon a journey, or conclude a bargain, or change situation, or have any other material event in view, it is necessary first to consult the superintendent 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 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 upmost, when on the floor, is in like manner referred to its correspondent mark in the book or sheet of fate. If the first throw be favorable, the person who made it prostrates himself in gratitude, and undertakes afterwards, with confidence, the business in agitation. 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 seem to pay little attention to their priests.

The temples of Fo abound with more images than are found in most Christian churches; some of which exhibit so strong a likeness to those in churches of the Romish 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 *Skin-moo*, or the sacred mother, sitting in an alcove with a child in her arms, and rays round her head, with tapers burning constantly before her. There are some images, however, in these temples, which bear a greater analogy to the ancient worship of the Romans than to modern catholicism. A figure, representing a female, seems to resemble Lucina, and is particularly addressed by unmarried women wanting husbands, and married women wanting children. The doctrine of Fo, admitting a subordinate deity particularly propitious to every wish which can be formed in the human mind, could scarcely fail to spread among those 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 magistrates, who do not interfere with speculative opinions.

The temples of Pekin are not very sumptuous. The higher classes venerate rather than adore Confucius, and meet to honor and celebrate his memory in halls of a simple but neat construction. The lower classes are less able than inclined to contribute much toward the erection of large and costly edifices for public worship; and their religious attention is much engaged beside 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 property, 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 contribution toward the erection or repair of temples, the maintenance of priests, and a strict attention to particular observances. If these should be neglected, the defaulters are threatened with the transmigration of their souls 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 Haide, the ancient Chinese adored a Supreme Being, under the name of Chan-Zi, or Tien; which, according to some, signifies the spirit presiding over the heavens, but has been supposed by others to mean only the visible firmament. They also worshiped 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 an universal principle called Taiki, resembling the doctrine of the soul of the world, as maintained by some ancient philosophers: but this opinion has not been very widely propagated.

Many attempts have been made by Christian missionaries for the conversion of the Chinese; but, even when they were apparently favored by the government, they did not make any great progress in their pious task; and, at various times, they were cruelly persecuted. At present they are tolerated, but are strictly watched by the government. There are two Christian establishments at Peking, one called the French, the other the Russian monastery: the latter flourishes more than the former; but the effects of both are more nugatory than beneficial.

[GENIUS, LEARNING, AND ARTS.] The Chinese in general are not men of vigorous intellects or comprehensive minds: a man of genius rarely arises among them; and few have any just conceptions of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting. Before their country was visited by Europeans, they were ignorant of mathematical learning and all its depending arts: they had no proper apparatus for astronomical observations; and all the metaphysical learning of the nation was only known to their philosophers. Even the arts introduced by the Jesuits were of very short duration among them, and lasted very little longer than the reign of Kang-hi, who was contemporary with our Charles II. It appears, however, that they understood printing for ages before it was practised by the Europeans;—that is, they used the stereotype process, by cutting their characters on blocks of wood; for the fusile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions.

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 honors and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and pursue it. The *literati* are revered as a superior species, and are the only nobility known in China. Even if their birth be very mean and low, they become mandarins of the highest rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, persons who neglect those studies which raised their fathers to distinction, however exalted their birth may be, quickly sink into poverty and obscurity.

The Chinese range all their works of literature in four classes. The first is the class of *K'in*, 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 the first class, there are placed some

historical monuments; and, among them, one which contains the annals of the most illustrious sage. The history and the history of philosophy and the history of the Chinese, the products of Chinese consideration. There are books relative to the sciences in general, and contains poetical books and comedies. They applied themselves to natural philosophy and internal politics of the dynasty of the Son of Heaven, the Chinese philosophy of the universe, and the sequence, perhaps, of the Arabians, who still have begun to print in it has been much.

The invention of the Chinese, who made a long period of small fire-arms, which they call tuff, porcelain, and can be equal to leveling mountains.

[LANGUAGE.] and thirty words with such various it becomes more numerous, who add expression of Chinese them very complex modulations, else the several meanings, being therefore their language are amazingly common.

The Chinese time become symbols much of their characters into words, like a man, another for distinct mark for use a great number on the eye the characters yet they do not sounds or letters and they use the were originally i

historical monuments, on account of their relation to religion and government; and, among others, *Tekun-tficou*, 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*, comprehends philosophy and the philosophers, and contains all the works of the Chinese, 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, and the arts and sciences in general. The fourth is called *Teie* or *Miscellanies*, and contains poetical books, effusions of eloquence, songs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chinese, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themselves less to the studies 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 ardor the works of Aristotle: and, since they 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 before it was known in Europe: but, for a long period after the discovery, 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 equaled only by their labors in the field, in making canals, leveling 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 every 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.

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: yet they do not combine these last marks into words, like marks for sounds or letters; but a separate mark is made to represent 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 is likewise read from the right hand.

ANTIQUITIES.] The most remarkable remain of antiquity in the Chinese empire, is the great wall separating China from Tartary. 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 parts built of brick and mortar, so admirably tempered, that, though it has stood more than two thousand years, it is little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, in the province of Peechelee, to the east of Peking, and almost in the same latitude: it is built like the walls of the capital, but is much wider, being terraced and cased with bricks; and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high; it is flanked with towers, which, in many places, are not distant above a hundred yards from each other. One-third of the men capable of labor in China, were, it is said, employed in constructing this wall, which was begun and completely finished in the short space of five years.

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 betwixt him and the death of 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 about 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.

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 the rulers of the state, and with all the precautions against delusion 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-hoan-ti, at whose command the great wall was built, in the 213th year before the Christian era, ordered all the historical books and records which contained the funda-

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ancient laws and principles of the ancient government to be burned, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppose his authority, or to condemn the changes which he intended to introduce into the monarchy. Four hundred *literati* were committed to the flames, 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 works 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 200th year before Christ, are very few, and that they are still in smaller numbers for more remote periods.

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, 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 mystery; their Li-Laokum; and, above all, their Kon-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. More than twenty dynasties, or different tribes and families of succession, are enumerated in their annals.

The bold attempt of Genghiz for the conquest of China could not subdue the empire: but the people were at length obliged to submit to the disgrace of subjugation. They engaged in a war with the Manchou Tartars, while an indolent worthless emperor, Sonchin, was upon the throne. In the mean while, a bold rebel, named Licontse, in the province of Se-chuen, dethroned the emperor; who hanged himself, as did most of his courtiers and women. Ou-sanquey, the Chinese general on the frontier of Tartary, refused to recognise the usurper; and made a peace with Chun-chi, the Manchou 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 meddling with his government.

The reign of Chen-Lung, a prince of the Manchou dynasty, was long and generally pacific, though it was not destitute of wars, in one of which he subdued the Eluts. He reigned from the year 1736 to 1796, and governed with prudence, dignity, and moderation. It was to him, in his advanced age, that a British ambassador was sent to propose a more liberal commercial intercourse than he or his predecessors had allowed. Never, perhaps, was there a character better qualified for the management of an embassy of such delicacy and importance than lord Macartney: but, notwithstanding the earl's adroitness, he found it 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 deemed pregnant with ruin; and, on this principle, the solicited favors were peremptorily refused. In 1816, a new application was made through the diplomatic agency of lord Amherst, not to the same prince, but to his successor Ka-Hin, or Kea-Kin: as the ambassador, however, from his high sense of his own dignity, and of the honor of his country, refused to pay the compliment of prostration, which he did not think due to any earthly potentate, and which lord Macartney had in some measure evaded by a compromise, he was dismissed with little ceremony, and his overtures or proposals terminated in disappointment. The same jealousy, on the part of China, still subsists; for Taou-Wang, the present emperor, is not more liberal or enlightened than his father, Kea-Kin.

CHINESE TARTARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2500 } Breadth 1000 }	between { 72 and 140 East longitude. { 37 and 53 North latitude. }	} 2,000,000.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] THE origin of the name of Tartary is uncertain; but it is supposed to be derived from the Chinese, who call all their neighbours, without any distinction, *Tata* or *Ta-tse*. 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 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.

The only division of this country, in general, arises from the different tribes by which it is inhabited; of these the principal are the Manchous, in the east; the Mongols, or Moguls, in the middle; and the Eluts, or Calmucks, in the west. The country of the first, who are more immediately under the authority of China, has been divided into three great governments, Chinyan, Kirin, and Sichicar, which take their names from the chief towns. The Russians call this whole division Daouria, from a particular tribe dispersed over it. Some geographers have added to the Chinese empire the territory of Corea: but it appears that, though the ruler of this peninsula sends an annual deputation to Peking with a certain tribute, he is in other respects entirely independent. The dimensions usually assigned to Corea are now found to be erroneous, as what was thought to be the western coast consists, according to the accounts of the captains Hall and Maxwell, of a great number of small islands. The island is, as far as they could judge, 400 miles in length, and its average breadth about 150. In the northern division, the air is cold, and the soil infertile: but the southern parts are fruitful in the various products of China. The people are tall; and they have more pleasing countenances than the Chinese, as well as more courteous manners: but they seem to be equally jealous of strangers. The king has

a numerous army; the Chinese, to whom

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The extensive country is a mountainous plain, the mountains of Tibet are prodigious plain, the intersected by several rivers. Cobi and Shamo, being the Tartarian

RIVERS.] The Oula, probably became Sagalian. It is also a very long river, eight hundred miles and III, which last

CLIMATE, SOIL.] The climate renders the climate even in summer it which is caused as this vast plain, little of saltpetre which and it is not uncommon. The trees are neither Here are immense cultivated, would Agriculture, indeed who raise some which

ANIMALS.] A remarkable are the The horses and camels grunting ox has a and silky texture. Tibet: the Indians they use for fly-fla to decorate their standards, instead

INHABITANTS.] The persons generally oblique eyes, small beards, as they pl and prominent, the yellowish brown; diness. They are rally easy and cheerful. They are strangers who put of a flat yellow hair; wide trowsers girdle which surround tobacco: the outward about the black or yellow: same manner as wear gowns with plait in tresses.

a numerous army; and it is said that his troops have more courage than the Chinese, to whom, therefore, they are in some degree formidable.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS.] A great part of this extensive country is a vast elevated plain, supported like a table by 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.

RIVERS.] The principal is the Amur; called by the Tartars Sagalian Oula, probably because it falls into the Eastern Ocean opposite to the island Sagalian. It is also called, near its source, the Kerlon, and the Argoun; it is a very long river, the extent of its course being above one thousand eight hundred miles. The other rivers are the Songari, Nonni, Yarkand, and Ili, which last 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 as to produce ice of considerable thickness, which is caused as much by the north-east wind blowing continually over this vast plain, 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 large; but there are some forests. Here are immense tracts of pasturage; and the soil, if it should be well cultivated, would be found sufficiently productive of most kinds of grain. Agriculture, indeed, is not entirely neglected by the Southern Manchous, who raise some wheat.

ANIMALS.] Among the various animals of this country, the most remarkable are the wild horses and asses, which are very numerous here. The horses and cattle are in great plenty, and sold at low prices. The grunting ox has a tail of uncommon beauty, full and flowing, of a glossy and silky texture. These tails form a great 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, instead of horse-tails.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Mongols are in their persons generally short and stout; with broad faces, flat noses, small oblique eyes, small eye-brows scarcely arched, thick lips, and scanty beards, as they pluck out the hairs by the roots. Their ears are very large and prominent, their hair black, and their complexions of a reddish or yellowish brown; but those of the women are 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 implemenets for smoking tobacco: the outer garment is of cloth, with wide sleeves, and linen is wound about the feet, over which are drawn buskies of leather, generally black or yellow: shirts are unknown. The women dress nearly in the same manner as the men; but, instead of the exterior garment, they wear gowns without sleeves. They have generally long hair, which they plait in tresses.

The various tribes of these Tartars in general form wandering herds, 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 tribes strike their tents, generally about ten 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 tribe has its respective limits, and it would be an act of hostility toward the neighbours to go beyond them; but they are at full liberty to encamp wherever they choose, within the circumference assigned to them. They live in their tents amidst 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 to labor, 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 men." During the summer, they live almost wholly 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 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 to make themselves intoxicated with it.

The Mongols are extremely dexterous 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 small standards. Their whole nation may be divided into four principal tribes; the Mongols properly so called, the Kalkas, Ortous, and Eluts, of which branch are the Tartars of Kokonor.

The Manchous are not very different in their habits and manners from the Mongols. They have, however, towns and villages, and appear to be more civilised, especially since their conquest of China: though the Chinese retain a great antipathy to their conquerors, whom they despise as barbarians.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.] The capital of the whole Manchou country is Chin-yan, or, as it is called by the Tartars, Mugden. 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 Manchou 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. Beyond this palisade there is another of the same kind, which is a league in circumference, and has four gates corresponding to the four cardinal points.

The Mongols, properly so called, have no towns; but, in the Elut country of Little Bokharia, is the city of Cashgar (formerly the capital of a kingdom), which still retains some trade. Yarkand stands more to

the southward, detached principality. TRADE.] The emperor; but many, of a spirit Tartary, which who engage in mission to fish, pure and without their stead.

The sable-skins reckoned to be apart for the emperor: the rest are eagerly bought.

The wandering exchange their ments for them.

GOVERNMENT. The Manchous are independent of each tentate. Whom titles on the part of them, but far emperor settled laws according khans have need of depriving the supreme tribune which every individual is obliged to a

RELIGION. lamas, or the description of numbers, from and Teeshoolama.

Another religion Shamanism. God, the creator and all his creatures, but that he performs great for the meritorious individuals has divided into a great number who, nevertheless, therefore may be obtained these inferior and cruelty. They have Shamans,

the southward, on a river of that name; and Turfan is the capital of a detached principality.

TRADE.] The Manchou traders chiefly dispose of ginseng, and pearls found in several rivers which fall into the Amur. This fishery belongs to the emperor; but the pearls are in general small, and not of a fine water: many, of a species 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 Mongols 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 Manchous are governed by viceroys appointed by the emperor of China. The Mongols are governed by khans, or particular princes, who are independent of each other, but all subject to the authority of the Chinese potentate. When the Manchous subdued China, they conferred certain titles on the most powerful of the Mongol chiefs, and assigned revenues to them, but far inferior to those of the Manchou 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 neither the power of condemning their subjects to death, nor of depriving them of their possessions: those cases are reserved for the supreme tribunal established at Peking for the affairs of the Mongols, 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 an account in the description of that country. They frequently make pilgrimages in great numbers, from the distance sometimes of a thousand miles, to Putala 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 Shamanism. 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 favor. 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 Shamans, women are considered as being greatly inferior to men, and

are thought to have been created only for their sensual pleasure, to people the world, and to look after domestic affairs; and, in consequence of these principles, they are treated with much severity and contempt.

LANGUAGE.] The Manchou language is said to be very copious, these Tartars being particularly nice with respect to the too frequent recurrence of the same sounds. It is also represented as very expressive, since it has names not only for the different species of dogs, but such as signify the age, color, 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, one that is 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. The late Orientalist, M. Langlès, compiled a dictionary of the Manchou language, which he pronounced to be the most learned and perfect of the Tartar tongues, though not committed to writing before the seventeenth century, when the emperor appointed some *literati* to design letters after those of the Mongols, whose language, however, is said to be radically different from that of the Manchous.

HISTORY.] In early times, the extensive country comprehended under the name of Tartary was divided among a great number of tribes, some of which, being united, formed powerful nations. About 200 years before the Christian æra, the Huns, by their activity and courage, had acquired a commanding pre-eminence, and their great khan domineered over many inferior princes. Their empire at length declined, and two branches arose from it, called the Mongols and the Tartars. The Turks seem to have had a kindred origin: but, from successive intermixture with other races, they now exhibit features not altogether Tartaric. Temujin, an enterprising chieftain, son of a Mongol khan, who had brought many herds under his sway, formed one great empire by his imposing address, the vigor of his arms, and his terrific cruelty. Encouraged by his success in his own country, he led his ferocious tribes into Persia, and subdued that realm. He also conquered a part of Hindoostan, of China, and of Russia. Timour, who was a descendant of that great warrior by the female line, was equally successful, extending his sanguinary and victorious course from India, in the east, to the western extremity of Asia. By those who only know him from the drama of Rowe, who typified king William III. by his Tamerlane, he may be considered as a magnanimous prince; but his cruelties were of the most diabolical complexion. The power which he had acquired gradually declined after his death: yet, by acting on the basis which he had raised, Baber, one of his grandsons, procured the splendid throne of Hindoostan. On the failure of the line of Genghiz in Great Bokharia, the Usbeck sovereignty was seized by Rahim, and subsequently by the emir Daniel, whose son Beggee Jan established his authority by mingling with policy an affectation of religious purity, and left his usurped power to his son Hyder. We believe that a descendant of Timour still claims the title of grand khan of Independent Tartary: but his power is rather nominal than real; and the country appears to be divided among the rulers of particular districts.

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Breadth 450 }

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BOUNDARIES.]
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TIBET.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1300 } Breadth 450 }	between { 75 and 101 East longitude. 27 and 34 North latitude. }	400,000.

NAME.] "THE country of Tibet," says captain Turner, "is called by the inhabitants *Pue*, or *Puckoachim*, which is derived, as they told me, from *Pue*, signifying northern, and *Koachim*, snow; that is, the snowy region of the north." The Chinese call it *Tsang*.

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*. The *Upper* is also called *Nagari*, and forms the provinces of *Sangkar*, *Pourang*, and *Tamo*. The provinces of the middle division are *Shang*, *Ou*, and *Kiang*; those of the lower, *Congbo*, *Kokang*, and *Takbo*, or *Boutan*. The last is an extensive country, considered as distinct from *Tibet Proper*.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, FORESTS.] Tibet at first view appears to be one of the least-favored countries under heaven, and seems 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 as little as they produce. *Boutan*, however, or the most southern part, though it presents only the most mis-shapen irregularities, has its mountains covered with verdure, and rich with abundant forests of large and lofty trees.

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 *Jandro* or *Palté*, which is represented as a wide trench, about two leagues broad, surrounding an island of about twelve leagues in diameter.

RIVERS.] The principal river of Tibet is the *Sanpoo*, or *Burrampooter*, which is also a river of *Hindoostan*. The *Ganges* likewise has its source among the mountains of Tibet, as have also the Chinese rivers *Hoanho* and *Kianku*, the great river *Maykan* of *Laos* and *Cambodia*, and the *Sarjoo* or *Gagra*, which, after a course of about 550 miles, falls into the *Ganges*, near *Chupra*.

METALS, MINERALS.] *Boutan* 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 Loombo*, 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 last 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 valleys 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 Boutan almost every mountainous part which is coated with the smallest quantity of soil is cleared and adapted to cultivation; but, in Tibet Proper, the nature of the soil checks the progress of agriculture. Wheat, barley, and rice, are raised in Boutan.

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: but, in Boutan, 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 musk deer is a native of this country. This animal is about the height of a moderate-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 color, 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 the government. In Tibet there is also a beautiful species of goat, with straight horns, having, under the exterior coarse coat, a very fine hair, from which the shawls of *Himala* are manufactured.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] To the north of Tassisudon, Mr. Sanders, who accompanied captain Turner into Tibet, 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 Boutan is a water-fall 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 steam.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The people of Boutan and Tibet are much more robust and less swarthy than their southern neighbours of Bengal. Humanity, and an insartificial gentleness of 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 (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 ceremonies of marriage are neither tedious nor intricate. The lover of a damsel makes his proposal to her parents; and, if the offer be accepted, they repair with their daughter 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 have no share in these ceremonies, or in ratifying the obligation. Mutual consent is the only bond of union, and the parties present are witnesses to the contract, which is formed in lissolubly 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 funeral rites are performed but such as

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Teeshoo Lcomboo capital of that part rity, is, in fact, a houses, inhabited by mausoleums, and t various subordinate court. It is includ

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The castle or pa of the valley of the gular form. The d and enclose a cent chief lama of the a few clusters of fields.

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MANUFACTUR pncipally shawl to China and E musk, rock-salt, silk, satin, gold kinds, are receiv of that country factures.

GOVERNMENT

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, which are ever after considered as sacred, and visited with religious awe: those of the inferior priests are burned, and their ashes preserved in little hollow images of metal. An annual festival is observed in Tibet, as in Bengal, in honor 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 situated 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 grand lama, is about seven miles to the east of the city.

Teeshoo Loomboo, or Labrong, the seat of Teeshoo Lama, and the capital of that part of Tibet which is 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), beside temples, mausoleums, and the palace of the 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 its buildings are all of stone, none less than two stories high, flat-roofed, and adorned with a parapet.

The castle or palace of Tassisudon, in Boutan, 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. 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 cloth. The exports, which go chiefly to China and Bengal, consist of gold-dust, diamonds, pearls, coral, musk, rock-salt, woollen cloth, and lamb-skins; in return for which, silk, satin, gold and silver brocade, tea, tobacco, and furs of various kinds, are received from China; and, from Bengal, the productions of that country, and a variety of English commodities and manufactures.

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 pontiffs, of whom the chief, called the Dalai 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. Every year they go from different parts, to worship and make rich offerings at his shrine; even the emperor of China 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 Pekin, an inferior lama, deputed as his nuncio from Tibet. The opinion of those who are reputed the most orthodox 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 one that is younger or better; and it is discovered again in the body of some child, by certain tokens known only to the lamas, 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 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 that gentleman 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 another, 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 colors, suspended from the upper edge and hanging down. Though the little creature 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. His features were good; he had small black eyes, and an animated expression of countenance."

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 three personages preside;—namely, the Dalai Lama, whose residence is at Pootalah, near Lassa; the Teeshoo Lama, who dwells at Teeshoo Loomboo; and the Taranaut Lama; who resides at Kharka in Kilmank. This sect prevails over the greatest part of the country. The three lamas who in like manner preside over the *shammar* sect, have their residence in Boutan, in separate monasteries, but from the limited extent of that country, at no great distance from each other. These sects are distinguished by the color of the dress of their priests. Those of the *gylookpa* wear long robes of yellow cloth, with a conic cap of the same color, 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, and possess the greatest influence, since the emperor of China is decidedly a votary of this sect, and has sanctioned his preference of the yellow color by a sumptuary law which limits it to the service of religion and the imperial use. These sects formerly engaged in violent religious

war, each destroying and establishing itself, and declining into comp

There are in the number of *gylong* forego the society of the cloister. O Loomboo, three thousand There are also a number of the strictest laws passing a night with of a nunnery.

"The religion of tical offspring of the followers of that faith which now prevail have received its origin India (which hence over China and Java its outward forms Brahma, in some of Tibet, is Mahan saint), the Buddha and various other to the eastward of which this faith under numerous temples in Asam and Ava China; Budha of Mahamocnie the emblem of wisdom as well as many places in their asse

"The same point already hinted, Cashi, Durged, grimage; and I Ganges, traveling largely to its inc have deemed it pious a purpose.

"As far as I differs materially and unite in prayer they chant in a band of loud and congregations, the and sound of a

LANGUAGE. both from those Turner, it consists alphabetic character former is the character considerably re

wars, each destroying, when successful, the monasteries of the other, and establishing its own in their stead; but these animosities have declined into comparative moderation.

There are in this country numerous monasteries containing a great number of *gylongs* or monks, who are required to be strictly sober, 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, three thousand seven hundred of these *gylongs* were reckoned. There are also a number of convents, containing *annees*, 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 Boudh, 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 hence became the seat of the sovereign lama), to have traversed over Manchou Tartary, and to have been ultimately disseminated over China and Japan. Though it differs from the Hindoo in many of its outward forms, it still bears a very close affinity to the religion of Brahma, in some important particulars. The principal idol, in the temple of Tibet, is Mahamoonie (a name which in Sanscrit literally signifies *great saint*;) the Budha or Boudh of Bengal, who is worshiped under these and various other epithets throughout Tartary, and among all the nations to the eastward of the Burrampooter. 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 Asam and Ava; Samana in Siam; Amida Buth in Japan; Fohi in China; Budha or Boudh in Bengal and Hindoostan; Dherma Raja and Mahamoonie in Boutan and Tibet. Durga and Kali; Gaucish, the emblem of wisdom; and Cartikeah 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, Durgeedin, Sangor, and Jagarnaut, are objects of devout pilgrimage; and I have seen loads of the sacred water taken from the Ganges, traveling 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 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 those of the Manchous and the Mongols. 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 is the character in which the sacred 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, in a very remote age.

HISTORY.] It is said that the succession of kings and lamas of Tibet began many ages before the birth of Christ; but, if this be true, we know nothing of the successive reigns. It appears, that, about the beginning of the twelfth century, the Chinese emperor arbitrarily interfered in the government, by giving to a distinguished lama the regal power; but, after an interval of several ages, we learn from father Andrada, who was in Tibet in 1624, that the country was governed by a secular sovereign, named Tsan-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 of destroying it. The Dalai Lama, being highly incensed at not receiving the homage of Tsan-pa-han, formed a league with the Tartars of Kokonor, who, under their prince Kouchi, entered Tibet, attacked Tsan-pa-han, defeated him, and caused him to be put to death. To this Tartar prince the lama was indebted for his sovereignty over all Tibet: for, instead of appropriating to himself the fruits of his victory, Kouchi declared himself a vassal of the supreme chief of his religion, satisfied with receiving from him the title of khan.

INDIA ON THIS SIDE OF THE GANGES, OR HINDOOSTAN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1700	between { 8 and 35 North latitude. } { 67 and 92 East longitude. }	900,000.
Breadth 1200		

NAME, BOUNDARIES, AND DIVISIONS.] 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. It is denominated Hindoostan by the Persians; but the Hindoos call it Bharata. It is bounded on the north by Usbeck Tartary and Tibet; on the east by Asam, Aracan, and the bay of Bengal; on the south by the Indian Ocean; and by the same ocean and Persia on the west.

Grand Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Hindoostan Proper—Provinces to the N. E. and N. of the Ganges.	Bengal	Calcutta.
	Bahar	Patna.
	Allah-abad	Allah-abad.
	Oude	Lucknow.
	Agra	Agra.
	Dehli	Dehli.

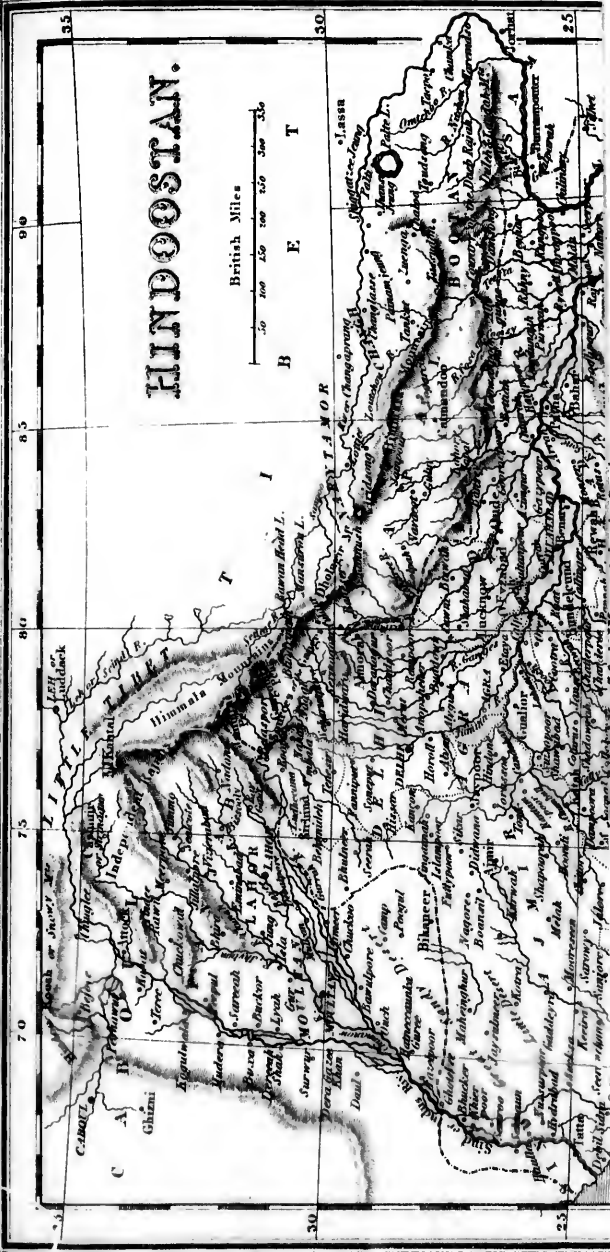


HINDOOSTAN.

British Miles

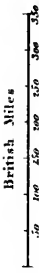


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London: Published May 1, 1862 by J. Newman & the other Proprietors.

HINDOOSTAN.



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J. Mawman & Co. Printers

London. Published May 1st 1887 by J. Mawman & the other Proprietors.

Grand Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	
Hindoostan Proper—Provinces to the N. W.	Caboul.....	Caboul.	
	Candahar.....	Candahar.	
	Lahor.....	Lahor.	
	Cashmir.....	Cashmir.	
	Moultan.....	Moultan.	
	Sind.....	Tatta.	
	Ajmir.....	Ajmir.	
	Guzerat.....	Ahmed-abad.	
	Malwa.....	Gualior.	
	The Decan, or southern Provinces of the Mogul empire.	Candeish.....	Berhanpour.
Berar.....		Nagpour.	
Orissa.....		Cuttack.	
Dowlat-abad or Ahmed-nagour....		Aureng-abad.	
Visiapour or Bejapour		Visiapour.	
Golconda or Hyder-abad.....		Hyder-abad.	
The northern Circars..		Ganjam.	
Southern Hindoostan, (improperly) called the Peninsula of Hindoostan.	South-east coast, usually called the coast of Coromandel.	Carnada, or the Carnatic. } Madras.	
		Mysour.....	Seringapatam.
		Tanjour.....	Tanjour.
		Madoura....	Madoura.
	South-west coast, usually called the coast of Malabar.	Travancour ..	Travancour.
		Calicut.....	Calicut.
		Canara.....	Bednour.
		The Concan..	Bombay.

The provinces of the Mogul empire were divided into circars and pergunnahs, the former of which may be compared to counties, and the latter to hundreds. The provinces are called soubahs, and the governors or viceroys soubahdars, and navaubs or nabobs.

PRESENT POLITICAL DIVISIONS.] The invasion of Hindoostan by Nadir Shah 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 India companies of France and England, who had been originally permitted, as traders, to form establishments on the coasts. These, profiting by the great superiority of European discipline, became in a short time principals in an obstinate contest, which at length terminated in the ruin of the French influence in Hindoostan; and thus a company of British merchants acquired, partly by cessations from the native powers, and partly by conquest, territories equal in extent, and superior in wealth and population, to most of the kingdoms of Europe.

Hyder Ali, a soldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war from

the Europeans, having seized that part of the ancient Carnatic called the kingdom of Mysour, within a few years acquired, by gradual conquest, a great portion of the southern part of Hindoostan. This able and active prince, dying in 1782, left his possessions to his son Tippoo, who 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 among the British, the Nizam, and the Mahrattas.

In consequence of these revolutions, the present Mogul, a descendant of the Great Timour (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 Dehli, which, with a small adjacent territory, is all that remains to him of the vast empire of his ancestors.

The sovereignty of this great country is, therefore, now divided among the British; some nabobs or governors tributary to and dependent on them; the nizam or soubahdar of the Decan; the Mahrattas; some independent rajahs, or Hindoo princes; and, in the north, the king of Caboul and the Seika.

The British territory consists of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa; those of Dehli and Agra; the city and district of Cuttack and port of Balasour; the northern circars; the jaghir, or territory, of Madras; the territories and ports of Cudalour, Devicotta, and Negapatam; the island and city of Seringapatam; the late kingdom of Canara; part of Guzerat; the island and fortress of Bombay on the gulf of Cambaya; various portions of the Mahratta territories; and some parts of the kingdom of Nepal.

The original countries of the MAHRATTAS were the province of Candeah and the district of Baglaa, or the north-western part of Dowlatabad. They extended their territory to the west and south along the coast from Surat to Canara, through that narrow tract of land called the Concan, of which, in 1818, the British government took possession. The founder of their state was Sevagi, a descendant of the rajah of Oudeipour; who, revolting from Aurengzebe, was imprisoned at Dehli, but found the means of escape, and erected his standard at Sattarah. He was pardoned by the aged emperor, and permitted to govern the principality which he had founded. After his death, in 1682, his son Sahoo inconsiderately granted a very extensive power to Bissonauth Balaji, a Brahmin, under the title of *peishwah*, or leader of the Mahratta chieftains, and official ruler of the state. This ambitious minister transmitted his power to his family; and the rajah gradually became a state prisoner at Sattarah, while the *peishwah* governed the principality without control.

The Mahrattas are now the chief possessors of CENTRAL INDIA, which extends from Chittour in the north to the Rapti river in the south, and from the district of Bundelcund to the province of Guzerat. Their principal state is that of Malwa, which they wrested in 1732 from the Great Mogul, to whom, however, they pretended to be still subservient. Bajerow was their leader in this expedition; but he was less successful in his invasion of the Decan. He died in 1740, and was succeeded in the administration by his son Balaji, in whose time Holkar, Sindiah, and other chieftains, shook off the yoke of the *peishwah*. In 1761, the heads of most of the great families formed a confederacy against Ahmed the Afghan, whose ambition menaced all his Hindoo neighbours with subjugation; but they suffered a very sanguinary defeat at Paniput. Their warlike spirit was not depressed by this disaster: they engaged occasionally in other wars, which will be noticed in our sketch of the history of India.

The Pindarris have been compared with the first Mahrattas, whom,

indeed, they resemble in some ties of religious bigotry, they rose into power by the Mahratta chief.

The only Mohamud says Sir John Malcolm and this officer has given in the capital of the wall, had no other The nabob defended his army of Mahrattas, siege. In 1817 he was for his services again taken from a Mahratta. The possessions of the vince of Golconda, between the Kistna lat-abad; with the part of its net revenue Moussi river.

The descendant of All, was, on the fall of Mysour under British on some of the great

The north-western DALLIS and the S custom of wearing a of Afghans, or the in west of Hindoostan general. They posterior to the Arabian They are rude and being addicted to passions of civil life as stupid and ignorant opinion, that, "the sense, and observation curiosity which is met the Hindoos. The lated by any objection strong as their love to have imbibed the sense of personal implacable as the they seemed to be generated, and have they were before. their pretensions to directors of the nation which they some over the king him of medicine, an remarkable; and with half-taught of real learning.

indeed, they resembled in character and habits, though they had not the same ties of religious or of national feeling. From being obscure freebooters, they rose into sufficient importance to be deemed useful auxiliaries by the Mahratta chieftains, and at length assumed an air of independence.

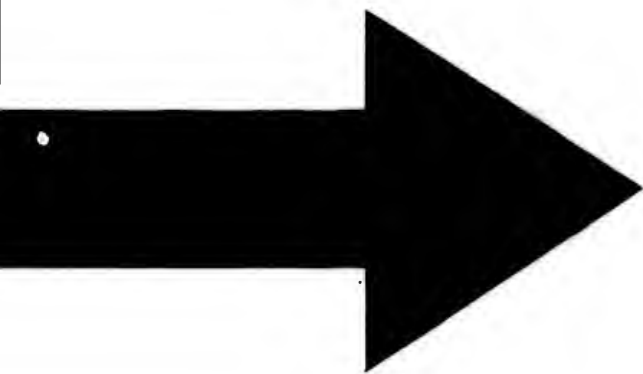
The only Mohammedan prince of any consequence in Central India, says Sir John Malcolm, is the nabob of Bopal, who is of Afghan origin; and this officer has given a curious account of a memorable siege sustained in the capital of that territory, which, though it had a high and strong wall, had no other works that could deserve to be called fortifications. The nabob defended the place, however, for six months against a numerous army of Mahrattas, and compelled the enemy, in 1814, to relinquish the siege. In 1817 he became an ally of the India company, and received, for his services against the Pindarris, a small province which had been taken from a Mahratta chieftain.

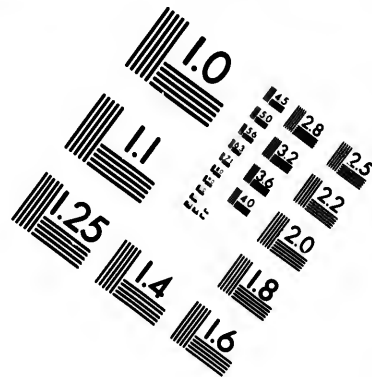
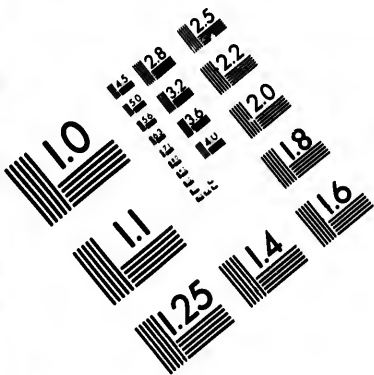
The possessions of the nizam or ruler of the DECAN comprise the province of Golconda, that is, the ancient province of Tellingana (situated between the Kistna and Godaveri rivers), and the principal part of Dowlat-abad; with the western part of Berar, subject to a tribute of a fourth part of its net revenue to the rajah. His capital is Hyder-abad, on the Mousai river.

The descendant of the rajah, who was dispossessed by the usurper Hyder Ali, was, on the fall of Tippoo, restored to the sovereignty of a great part of Mysour under British protection. Most of the other rajahs are dependent on some of the great powers.

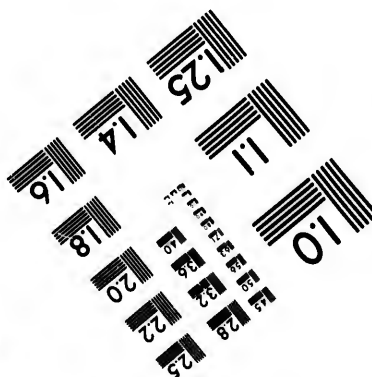
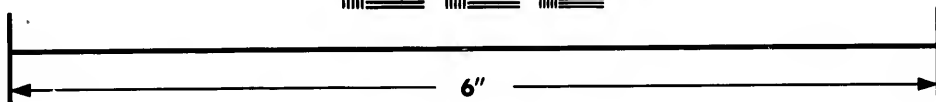
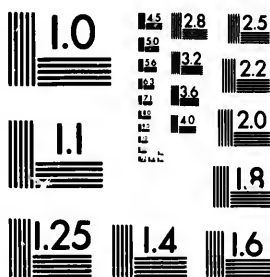
The north-western provinces of Hindoostan are possessed by the ABDALLIS and the SEIKS. The Abdallis (also called Duranis, from the custom of wearing a pearl in one of their ears), are properly a sect or tribe of Afghans, or the inhabitants of the mountainous country in the north and west of Hindoostan; 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 rude and unpolished in their manners; and many of their tribes, being addicted to predatory warfare, avow a fixed contempt for the occupations of civil life. They are consequently stigmatised by the Persians as stupid and ignorant barbarians; but Mr. Elphinston declares it as his opinion, that, "the bulk of the people are remarkable for prudence, good sense, and observation;" and it also appears that they have a degree of curiosity which is more creditable to their understandings than the apathy of the Hindoos. They are industrious and laborious, when they are stimulated by any object of business or of pleasure. Their desire of gain is as strong as their love of independence. From the former passion they seem to have imbibed the meanness of envy and jealousy; and, from their high sense of personal dignity, they are resentful and vindictive, yet not so implacable as the Portuguese. When they were first visited by Europeans, they seemed to have few vices or corruptions: but they have since degenerated, and have become more insincere, immoral, and debauched, than they were before. Even their priests are depraved and licentious, with all their pretensions to sanctity, and all their affectation of austerity. These directors of the national faith are distinguished by their powerful influence, which they sometimes exercise over the highest civil officers, and even over the king himself. They are the administrators of the law, professors of medicine, and conductors of education. For erudition they are not remarkable; and, indeed, the country (says Mr. Elphinston) is over-run with half-taught ecclesiastics, who rather impede than promote the progress of real learning. Peshawer, however, is so far in repute for literature,







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that students repair to that town even from Bokhara; a famous seat of Mohammedan learning.

The principal cities of the **AFGHANS** are Candahar and Caboul. The former was considered as the capital in the time of Ahmed, by whom it was strengthened and improved, and whose sepulchre, which has the privilege of an asylum, stands near the palace. The town is more regularly constructed than most of the Asiatic cities. Four bazars meet at a circular area, covered with a dome: the houses are lofty, and some of them are elegantly built; and the place is surrounded with gardens and orchards. Caboul, which is now the seat of government, is situated on the eastern side of two united hills of a semicircular form, in the midst of an extensive and fruitful plain. It is surrounded by a brick wall, with towers at the angles; and it has also a citadel, in which are included the palace and other public buildings. The houses in general are constructed of rough stones and clay, and have a mean appearance; but there are four well-built bazars, and a considerable trade is carried on by the inhabitants. A Hindoo town existed on this spot in the seventh century. It was taken by the Saracens, but was soon recovered; and, after various changes of masters, it became the capital of Baber, the great Mogul. It was seized by the shah Nadir, but he lost it by the revolt of Ahmed.

The province of Cashmir was added by Ahmed, in 1754, to the kingdom which he had recently formed out of the Persian empire. It chiefly consists of a spacious valley, sheltered by mountains from the cold winds: the climate is delightful, and the soil, being well-watered, is abundantly fertile. The inhabitants are industrious, and employ themselves in various branches of manufactures and trade. Their shawls, made from the hair of the Tibet goats, are well known in Europe, and have not yet been excelled or even equaled by the similar fabrics of any other country. Both sexes have been praised for personal beauty: the men, indeed, are stout and well-formed; but their features are often coarse and broad, and the women in general are not very handsome. The dress of the former consists of a shirt, trowsers, a loose woollen coat, a shawl girdle, and a large turban: that of the latter, of a crimson cap or bonnet, a shawl scarf, and a long cotton robe, beside trowsers. The chief town of the province extends between two and three miles on each side of the Jeloum, and is, in some parts, almost two miles in breadth. Many of the houses have three stories, and are built principally of wood, parted by brick walls: the roofs are of wood, in a sloping direction, and are covered with earth, which exhibits, in the proper season, a profusion of flowers. The streets are narrow, and are suffered, by the gross negligence of the inhabitants, to be generally in a very dirty state. No fine buildings appear within the city; but the remains of handsome palaces are seen in the neighbourhood.

The territories of the **SEIKS** border upon the kingdom of Caboul, and consist of great portions of the province of Lahor, the Panjab, and Moul-tan. Their different states are under the arbitrary sway of independent chieftains, who do not, however, so oppress the people as to prevent them from enjoying the fruits of their industry;—a quality which, notwithstanding their predatory and unsettled habits, they possess in a high degree. They are of the Brahminical persuasion; but they differ, in some points which are of little moment, from the orthodox Hindoos. 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* bearing that signification in the Sanscrit language.

Another country which claims notice in a survey of India is **BELOOCHISTAN**, bounded on the north by the territories of the Afghans, by Siad

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on the east, the Indian ocean to the southward, and Persia on the west. A great part of it consists of a sandy desert, and the eastern division is mountainous. The rivers are rather mountain torrents than regular streams, and do not prevent the inconvenience of a scarcity of water. Mines of iron, lead, copper, and tin, are not uncommon; and gold and silver are likewise found: marble, rock-salt, alum, saltpetre, and sulphur, are also procured from the spontaneous bounty of the soil. Dates thrive amidst the sands; and, in other parts of the country, the finest fruits are produced, and all sorts of grain are cultivated with success. The ordinary cattle are numerous; and camels and dromedaries are equally abundant and useful. Of the few towns which the people occupy, Kelat is the principal, being the seat of government, and the abode of the khan. It contains about 3750 houses, which, in general, are wretchedly built. The families which do not dwell in towns lead a pastoral life, and wander from one spot to another, erecting commodious tents of blankets stretched over wicker-work. Though the Belooches have given their name to the country, they are not its sole possessors; for the Brahoo divide it with them. The former are less respectable in their characters than the others, and more addicted to the practice of depredation, which, however, they publicly exercise in neighbouring territories, not among the individuals of their own community; for they have a great contempt for petty or private thieves. Burglary and highway robbery are capital offences among them; and, in cases of murder, the khan acts personally as judge. They are votaries of the Mohammedan system, without being so strict in their religious performances as the Moslems of other countries. All the chieftains were tributary to the khan, and were obliged to send troops to his camp at his requisition; but some of them have shaken off his yoke; and, as his authority is thus declining, he has not sufficient power to maintain due subordination and tranquillity, or to check the commotions which occasionally arise from the jealousy or ambition of the chiefs.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains are those which separate Hindoostan from Tibet, and are called by the natives Himalaya, or the abode of snow, with which they are constantly covered.

This stupendous chain, it is said, exhibits a continued well-defined line of white cliffs, extending through two points of the compass, and is seen at the distance of 150 miles. Lieutenant Webb, who examined many of the peaks of this chain, declares that nineteen are higher than Chimborazo, the loftiest summit of the Andes. The highest point, by his account, is 25,669 feet above the level of the sea, whereas, according to Mr. Reddell, the South-American mountain is only 20,900 feet in height. In southern Hindoostan the mountains called the Ghauts (though this word properly signifies a pass in a mountain) extend from the river of Surat to Cape Comorin. They are called the Ballaghaut and the Payenghaut, or the upper and lower Ghauts. They are in many places a mile and a quarter in height, overgrown with forests, and have their summits frequently enveloped in snow. At their termination near Cape Comorin, they may be seen eight or nine 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 Kentsaise, one of the vast mountains of Tibet, and, after a long course, enters Hindoostan at the defile of Kupele, supposed by the natives to be its source. 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, toward

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, extending with its windings above thirteen hundred miles, is now possessed by the British, their allies and tributaries. The western branch, called the Little Ganges, or river of Hougli, is navigable for large ships. The Ganges receives eleven rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, and none inferior to the Thames.

The Burrampouter, or Brahmepouter (that is, the son of Brahma), is superior to the Ganges both in length of course and in width. 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 1100 miles distant from it, having proceeded to within about 200 miles of Yunnan, the most western province of China, when it returns, and joins the Ganges near the sea. During the last 60 miles, 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.

Another considerable river in this part of Hindoostan is the Jumna. It rises in the mountains of Serinagour, and pursuing a course nearly parallel to that of the Ganges for 500 miles, falls into this river at Allah-abad.

The Indus, called by the natives Sindeh, is the western boundary of India. It derives its origin from ten streams springing at a distance from each other, out of the Persian and Tartarian mountains, one of which originates in Cashmir. In its course to the Indian sea, it receives the Behut or the ancient Hydaspes, and four other streams, which form the Panjab, or the country of the five rivers. The Indus is also 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 600 miles, and is considered as forming the northern boundary of the Decan; the Godaveri, which falls into the bay of Bengal, after a course of nearly the same extent; the Kistna or Krishna, which is the boundary of the Decan to the south; and the Caveri, which surrounds the city of Seringapatam. The two last rivers fall into the bay of Bengal, after a course of about 450 miles each.

METALS, MINERALS.] The principal mineral production 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, with long iron rods, which have hooks at the ends, pick out the contents of the fissures, and wash them in tubs in order to discover the diamonds. In Coulour they dig in a large plain to the depth of ten or fourteen feet; forty thousand persons 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.

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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 extremely disagreeable. The English, and consequently the Europeans in general, who arrive in 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 afterward prove healthy. Hepatic complaints are not uncommon among those who have resided long in the country; and, some years ago, the *cholera*, in particular, was very prevalent, not only among the troops serving against the Mahrattas and Pindarris, but also in many of the towns. It has been less fatal, however, to the Europeans, than to the sepoys and other natives.

In the southern part of Hindoostan, the mountains, running from north to south, render it winter on one side, while it is summer on the other. About the end of June a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which, with continual rain, lasts four months, during which time all is serene upon the coast of Coromandel. Near the end of October, the rainy season and the change of the monsoons begin on the latter coast; and, as it is destitute of secure harbours, ships are then obliged to leave it. The air is naturally hot in this division of India; 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 intolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the sea, which 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 length, which inundation greatly fertilises the land; and the periodical rains and intense heat produce an extraordinary luxuriance of vegetation. The lands 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 have for their sustenance scarcely any other share of the rich produce of the soil, than 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 teak-tree affords a strong and durable timber, which is well calculated for ship-building, as teak ships that have been in service for thirty years are not uncommon in the Indian seas, while an 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 *beayan* 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 they find soil to nourish them. Of fruit-bearing trees the number is very great, and the fruit delicious, especially pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, dates, almonds, mangoes, pines, 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, and yams. The sugar-

cane nowhere grows with greater vigor, or is more productive of its juice, or more capable of being manufactured into fine 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 tiger, for his size and strength, may claim the first place; for lions, if there be any, are extremely rare. The royal tiger (as he is called) of Bengal, grows, it is said; to the height of five or six feet, with a proportional 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-ghau. Wild buffaloes are frequent here, which are very fierce, and have horns of extraordinary length. With respect to domestic animals, the cattle are generally of a large size, well-formed and strong, 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. Poultry in a wild state are found in great numbers in most of the jungles or thickets. The natives are extravagantly fond of cock-fighting, and pay greater attention to the training and feeding of these birds, than we ever did, even when that diversion was at its height.

The serpents of Hindoostan are very numerous, and some species 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 northern mountains, sometimes called the glaciers of India, and which make the most majestic and awful appearance, even at the distance of 100 miles; the ice rises often into lofty spires on a very grand scale, and the light sides appear stained in the most elegant manner with a roseate color. At the Gangonra, 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.

POPULATION.] The Mohammedans, or, as they are improperly called, Moors of Hindoostan, were computed by Mr. Orme, when he wrote the history of this country, to be about ten millions; and the Hindoos, about a hundred millions. This calculation seems to transcend the truth in a high degree; and we may more reasonably suppose, that the whole population does not exceed seventy millions.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Hindoos, or (as they are likewise called) Gentooes, have from time immemorial been divided into four great tribes. To the first and most noble tribe belong 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 shopkeepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudra, who ought to be menial servants; and they are incapable of raising themselves to a superior rank. If any of them should be excommunicated from one of the four tribes, he and his posterity are

for ever shut out from that of the Hindoo tribes, and in such a circumstance will suffer the same fate from one article of their theodicy.

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for ever shut out from the society of every person in the nation, except that of the Harricast, who are holden in 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 some even death itself), rather than deviate from one article of that faith which is supposed to be the criterion of orthodoxy.

Beside this grand classification, the Gentoos are subdivided into casts and small tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of these casts. The order of pre-eminence of all the casts, in a particular city or province, is in general indisputably decided. The Indian of an inferior cast would think himself highly honored by adopting the customs of a superior: but the latter would give battle sooner than not vindicate its prerogatives. The man of an inferior cast 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 intercourse; 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 for their ugliness.

The members of each cast adhere invariably to the professions of their forefathers. From one generation to another, the same families have followed one uniform line of life. To this may be ascribed that excellence which is so conspicuous in many of the manufactures of the Hindoos; 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 labor, secured such an 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 may 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 Mohammedan 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 venerated, and the same arts and sciences are cultivated.

All the casts acknowledge the Brahmins for their priests, and from them derive their belief of the transmigration of souls; which leads many of them to afflict themselves even at the death of a fly, although it might have been occasioned by inadvertence. But the majority of casts are less scrupulous, and eat, although very sparingly, both of fish and flesh; yet, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. Their diet chiefly consists of rice and vegetables, dressed with ginger, turmeric, and other hot spices, which grow almost spontaneously in their gardens. They

deem milk the purest of food, 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 seems to consist 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 affirmed that their wives are distinguished by a decency of demeanor, a regard for their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honor to human nature in the most civilised countries: but other accounts attribute gross and frequent immorality to both sexes.

The soldiers, commonly called *rajah-pouts*, or descendants of rajahs, abound in the northern and middle provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the inhabitants of the southern parts. They 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. Some of the members of this fraternity have raised themselves to the rank of princes, more particularly in Central India. The majority still retain their military reputation; but, since they have been so widely spread over the country, many of their tribes have seceded from the profession of arms, and pursue a variety of civil occupations, without the tricking and knavish spirit for which so many of the Hindoos are notorious.

The complexions of the Gentoos are 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, manner, and whole deportment, are graceful in the highest degree. The male dress is a kind of close-bodied gown, and wide trowsers, resembling petticoats, reaching down to the slippers. Such of the women as appear in public have shawls over their heads and shoulders, short close jackets, and tight drawers, 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.

The houses of persons of distinction cover much ground, and have spacious galleries; but the apartments are small, and the furniture, not very elegant, if we except the rich Persian carpets. The grandeur of a palace consists in its bath and its *senana*. The latter, which is the residence of the women, is removed from the front of the house, and receives the light only from a square space in the centre of the whole building. The apparel of the women is exceedingly rich; they have jewels on their fingers and about the neck, and also in the ears and nostrils, with bracelets, and even ornaments for their ancles.

Females of the lower classes are frequently enslaved in India. Not only children but adults of this sex are openly sold by those who claim authority over them. Even the Brahmins encourage this practice, and take slaves into their houses. The dancing girls are all in that degraded state, and are condemned to a life of toil and vice for the profit of others. With regard to the amusements of the Hindoos, we may observe, that they are chiefly gratified with religious shows and festivals. Speaking of the natives of the central territories, Sir John Malcolm says, "Though

it is principally of the towns, and the villages, a great part of the use of the sword of the women they come strength by towns, while men and women jugglers, or and strolling of the plays, mythological saints appear of singing in circles which is given and the desire to see them use of their large marriages innocent of the same class.

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it is principally at their festivals that they enjoy themselves, they partake fully of the games and amusements common to other parts of India. In the towns, gambling with dice is a prevalent vice, but it is little known in the villages. Those persons of the military profession, who have horses, pass a great part of their time in training and exercising them, and in learning the use of the spear; and both these and the poorer warriors study the use of the sword under competent teachers, and practise with matchlocks till they come to great perfection: they also improve their activity and strength by gymnastic exercises. Dancing girls are the luxury of large towns, while the villages have attached to them (living in huts or tents) men and women of the lower tribes, who are tumblers, rope-dancers, jugglers, or minstrels. The villages are also frequently visited by drolls and strolling players: many of the latter are very clever. The subjects of the plays, or rather farces, which they represent, are as often their mythological fables, as the measures of their earthly rulers. The peasants appear to be a remarkably cheerful race. They are particularly fond of singing: the men, after the labor of the day is over, will sit for hours in circles singing in chorus, or listening to some story, the subject of which is generally religious, mixed with tales of their former princes, and the deeds of their forefathers. The women all sing; and it is usual to see them returning in groupes from a well or river with water for the use of their families, chanting in chorus some favorite song. At the village-marriages the women join in dances, and in every other scene of innocent merriment, with a liberty that is not exceeded by the usages of the same class in any part of the world."

The Mohammedans of India are the mingled descendants of Arabs, Persians, Turks, and Tartars. They are at present in a state of humiliation, in consequence of the wonderful progress of the British power, and have therefore suffered their former arrogance to subside. They have, however, few good qualities, and are faithless, unprincipled, and immoral. Persons of rank, among them, delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train leopards to the sports of the field. All classes encourage tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; they are fond of rude music, both of wind and stringed instruments, and play at cards in their private parties. They live on friendly terms with the Hindoos, forgetful of religious distinctions.

The Parsees, whose name indicates their origin, are a most industrious people, particularly in weaving, and in architecture. They worship the sun and the element of fire, as emblems of the divinity.

PROVINCES, CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is the most interesting to an English reader. In this part of Hindoostan, not indeed our trade, but our Indian empire, may be said to have commenced. It is about 400 miles in length, and 300 in breadth; and Bahar, which adjoins it, is less extensive only by a third part. In both provinces, the soil is said to be more prolific than that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce consists of rice, sugar-canes, corn, tobacco, cotton, hemp, flax, small mulberry and other trees. The calico, muslin, and silk, here manufactured, are well known and admired: salt-petre, opium, wax, indigo, various drugs, and many other articles, are exported in large quantities; and provisions of all kinds are in great plenty. The country is intersected by canals cut from the Ganges for the benefit of commerce, and abounds with towns, forts, and villages.

An ancient kingdom existed in Bengal; but of its origin and progressive history we have no certain intelligence. Early in the thirteenth

century, it was so far subdued, that the people were reduced to tributary submission, under the Afghan sovereign of Dehli. This disgrace was endured till the year 1340, when Fakro'ddin, an officer of the government, seized the chief power, and founded an independent kingdom. This state of affairs continued for two centuries; after which the country became an appendage of the Mogul empire. On the decline of the imperial power, the subjection of this province was little more than nominal; and, in 1765, the rising fame and powerful influence of the encroaching English, who had previously obtained the privilege of collecting the revenue, secured the effective sovereignty.

Bengal contains five military stations, beside Fort-William; and it is divided into three circuits, in each of which is a court of judicature. In civil causes, regard is paid to the Hindoo and Mohammedan laws; but, in criminal cases, the natives are amenable to the laws of Great-Britain. They enjoy a full religious toleration, and are not oppressed by their European rulers.

The metropolis of Bengal, and also of British India, is Calcutta. This city is about one hundred miles from the sea, situated on the western branch of the Ganges, which is navigable up to the town, but not for the largest ships. It extends from the western point of Fort-William along the banks of the river, almost to the village of Cossipour, that is, above four miles, while the breadth is in many parts inconsiderable.

It exhibits a striking mixture of European and Asiatic manners. The differences of countenance and figure, of dress and equipage;—the passing ceremonies of the Hindoos of various castes;—the amicable collision of Armenians, Jews, Arabs, Persians, Chinese, and people of the Indian islands, with the English and the Anglicised citizens;—and a variety of other circumstances,—excite in a high degree the attention of strangers.—“As you approach Chandpal-Ghaut (says an officer) and see a large, regular, and handsome fortress, a palace-like government-house, a wide and grand esplanade, many magnificent houses on one side of it, and a range of stately edifices beyond it, an anchorage crowded with shipping, and a close-built city, containing not less than 80,000 houses,—whatever your expectations may have been, they are surpassed.”—The population is said to amount to 500,000, of whom comparatively few are Europeans. The houses occupied by the Hindoos are neatly and incommodiously built, many being composed of bamboos covered with matting, and not a few of mud surmounted by thatch.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The Indian nabob or viceroy, Seraj-ed-Dowlah, having a dispute with the company, invested Calcutta with a considerable force. The governor and some of the principal persons of the place threw themselves, with their chief effects, on board of the ships in the river; they who remained, for some hours bravely defended the place: but, when they had expended their ammunition, they surrendered upon terms. The tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governor's chief servant, and 145 British subjects, into a 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 in the morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrensy. Among those who were saved was Mr. Holwell himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe.

Mourshed-abad was the capital of Bengal before the establishment of the English power in India. A few domes and minarets, and a number

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of houses built of brick, with terraces, small verandahs, flat roofs, and painted doors and windows, give to this city, in spite of the mean huts crowded behind them, a very pleasing appearance. It is ostensibly under the government of a nabob, who is subject to British influence.

Hougli, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a great commercial town. The Dutch had here a well-fortified factory.—Dacca is said to be the largest city in Bengal. The weaving business, the great trade of India, is carried on in this town to a perfection unknown in other parts; and the muslin, here manufactured, is exquisitely fine.

Patna is the chief emporium of the province of Bahar, and is consequently populous and flourishing.

Benares stands 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 many Hindoo temples, and in the middle of the city is a large mosque, built by Aurengzebe, who destroyed a magnificent pagoda to erect it on its site. It is four miles in length, and two in breadth, and has an extraordinary population, amounting, as some affirm, to 630,000. It has been subject to Great-Britain from the year 1775.

Allah-abad, in the province of the same name, is situated at the conflux of the Ganges and the Jumna, where the waters of the former river, which are in all parts of India deemed holy, are thought to be peculiarly sanctified; whence the city has received the name of *Allah-abad*,—that is, the *City of God*. It belongs to the nabob of Oude, and contains a spacious fort and several magnificent structures. At a short distance, to the north-west, are the diamond mines of Penna, in the province of Bundelcund.

Lucknow, which is the present capital of Oude, having superseded Fyz-abad, is a large town, but meanly built. The houses are on a level with the worst houses in Calcutta; but the palaces of the nabob (now styled king) are very large and stately, if not elegant or tasteful structures. Fyz-abad 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. Near this town are the remains of the ancient city of Oude, 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, few traces of it now remain. It is considered as a holy place, and the Hindoos resort thither on pilgrimage from all parts of the country.

Agra, situated on the south side of the Jumna, was made the capital of the Mogul empire by the emperor Achar. It was then a small fortified town, but soon became one of the largest and most celebrated cities of Hindoostan, being twelve miles in circumference, regularly fortified in the Indian manner, with a fine citadel, and displaying many magnificent palaces; but, after the removal of the court to Delhi, it rapidly declined, though, in 1813, it still contained 60,000 inhabitants. It is now garrisoned by British troops, being taken from the Mahrattas in 1803. To the south-east of Agra is a beautiful mausoleum, erected by the shah Jehan for his beloved wife, and called Taje-Mahel, or the Crown of Edifices. When this building is viewed from the opposite side of the river, it exhibits, from the excellence of the materials and the workmanship, a degree of beauty, which is only surpassed by its grandeur, extent, and general magnificence.

Dehli is the nominal capital of Hindoostan, and was the real one from 1647, when the shah Jehan made it his residence to avoid the heat of Agra, till the dissolution of the empire. It is about seven miles in circumference, and has, on three sides, a wall of brick and stone, with seven gates built of free-stone. Though this city may be said to be now in ruins, it contains a number of mosques, some of which are 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 shah, 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. When the British troops took possession of this city, the environs appeared little more than a shapeless heap of ruins, and the surrounding country seemed equally desolate and forlorn; but it now wears a better aspect.

Of the province of Sind, which is tributary to the king of Caboul, the capital is Tatta, a large city, which was formerly distinguished for its manufactures in silk and cotton. A plague, which happened in 1699, carried off above sixty thousand of the inhabitants employed in them, and they have since greatly declined; but it is still famous for its manufacture of palanquins, 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 in a day; ten being usually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time.

Considerable portions of the provinces of Ajmir, Candeish, and Malwa, are possessed by the Mahratta chief, Sindiab, whose usual residence was for many years at Ougein, an ancient and spacious city, surrounded by a strong wall, with round towers. He has lately made Gualior the seat of government, probably because it is one of the strongest places in India. Holkar has also extensive territories in the two last-mentioned provinces. Another potent Mahratta prince is the rajah of Berar, whose territories are situated to the eastward of Candeish and Dowlat-abad.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the Gulf of Cambaya, and one of the finest in India. It is inhabited by a fierce, rapacious community, which is said to vie in wealth with the richest towns in Europe. At the distance of about one hundred and ten miles to the south, stands Surat, on the Tapti, which is one of the most flourishing commercial towns in Hindoostan, and contains 300,000 inhabitants, though the harbour is small and incommodious.

Among the islands situated on the same coast, is that of Bombay, belonging to the India company. Its harbour can conveniently contain one thousand ships at anchor. The island itself is about seven miles in length, and eighteen in circumference; but its situation and harbour are its chief recommendations, as it is 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 to guard against its insalubrity. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of stone. This island was part of the portion paid with the infant of Portugal to king Charles II., who gave it to the India company; and it is still divided into three Roman catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and those who 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 spot, under all its disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable

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residence. 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 city of Goa, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in India, lies about two hundred and sixty miles south of Bombay. The island on which it stands is about twenty-seven miles in compass, and the harbour is one of the best in India. 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 on this island equaled those of the crown of Portugal.

The territory of Canara begins about forty miles to the south of Goa, and reaches to Calicut; its soil is abundantly productive of rice, with which commodity it supplies many parts of Europe and India. 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 death of Tippoo, has been in possession of the English. The principal ports of this province are Mangalour and Onour.

To the east of Canara, on the other side of the Ghauts, is the country of Mysour, the capital of which, Seringapatam, is now possessed by the English. This celebrated city, the conquest of which shed such lustre on the British arms, is situated 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 stately mosques. The mausoleum of Hyder, 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, the appellation is sometimes restricted to the country lying on the north-west of Cape Comorin. The principal places on this coast are Tellicheri, an English settlement, in a beautiful situation, 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 Samorins, the sovereigns of the country, who at that period appear to have possessed the whole Malabar coast from Goa to Cochin: and Cranganour, formerly a Dutch settlement.

Cape Comorin, the southernmost point of Hindoostan, 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 one side, while on the other they are stripped of all their leaves. This surprising phenomenon is produced by the ridge of mountains, traversing the whole country from south to north.

The Carnatic is well known to the English. It extends from north to south about three hundred and fifty miles, and one hundred and fifty in breadth from east to west. It has been subject to the British government since the year 1801, when only a small part was allowed to the nabob, an old ally of the company. The country is in general healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this territory lies Fort St. David, or Cudalour: the fort is strong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicheri, a handsome city, formerly the great emporium of the French, now comparatively insignificant; 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 presidency of that name. 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 complexions of their

respective inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White town is more regularly and handsomely built than the other, and is more worthy of the dignity of Great Britain. The want of a harbour at this place is a serious deficiency, which is not sufficiently supplied by the goodness of an open road.

To the north of the Carnatic is the ancient city of Golconda, now principally belonging to the nizam. The whole of the Decan, extending from the Nerbudda to the Kistna, was governed by the progenitors of this prince; but such defalcations were made from it at different times by the Mahrattas, that the present nizam has only the south-eastern division, of which the capital is Hyder-abad, a large and populous, but not fine city.

In the south-western part of the Decan, is Poonah, the capital of the Mahratta state; a city which is neither remarkable for strength nor for beauty. It was taken by sir Arthur Wellesley in 1803; and, in a recent war, it has also been left to the mercy of the company.

The province of Visiapour, or Bejapour, before its conquest by the great Mogul, 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 was gradually subdued, in the sequel, by the Mahrattas. The capital is of the same name, and the country very fruitful. The province of Dowlat-abad adjoins to Visiapour on the north, the capital is Aureng-abad, one of the most populous cities in Hindoostan, built by Aurengzebe near the old capital, which has a very strong citadel, seated on a lofty mountain.

The territory of Orissa lies to the north of Golconda, extending from east to west about two hundred and thirty miles, and from north to south about one hundred and forty. The capital and the port of Balasour were ceded to the English by the treaty which concluded the short but successful war of 1803; an acquisition the more valuable, as it secured a communication between the British territory on the Ganges, and that on the coast of Coromandel.

In this province stands the temple of Jagarnaut, which is said to be 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. Near this temple is kept a very large wooden car, curiously carved, in which the idol is placed; and the machine is drawn along, at certain seasons, by a number of devotees, while others spontaneously fall prostrate in the way, and entitle themselves, as they confidently hope, to future happiness, by being crushed to death beneath the wheels.

To the southward of Orissa, the five Circars form a tract of sixty or seventy miles in breadth, and 300 in length. Four of these governments were ceded to the company by the Mogul, Shah Aalum, in 1765; but the other was not added to the number of our acquisitions before the year 1789. Beside the usual agricultural products of India, this country affords very fine timber for ship-building; and it is inhabited by an ingenious and industrious race, whose cotton manufactures are particularly valuable; but, unfortunately, the whole coast has not a harbour fit for the reception of large vessels.

The territory of Napal, bordering upon British India, may here be mentioned, though it has been considered as a part of Tibet. It chiefly consists of a vast plain, between the Tibetan mountains and those which terminate the province of Oude. It is said to be 200 miles in

circumference: it is a very populous town, and contains about 18,000 houses. Lelit, situated to the north of it, is of a magnitude, hardly to be compared with any other. Another large town is situated to the south of it. The religious structures, and the people are of a different race, and are not an unspirited race, allow.

MANUFACTURES consist principally of craft trades that are not so numerous as in some other parts, and some other manufactures with their feet as in the art of spinning of their linen, and the making of those kinds of cloth. The commerce of India, and probably has been even in Solomon's time, the principal materials of which are from England, the trade has nearly annihilated the value of much important commodities, raw and woven.

The Mohammedan western parts of the country, in vessels called *galies*, cargo, will carry a prophet. At Mecca, traders, to whom that a junk, return.

GOVERNMENT is despotic, and such a country at present is heir to his own of continued in that pay his taxes, and the public books of those of the great. Certain portions of the crown on the emperor; but the indefeasible.

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circumference: it bears the title of a kingdom; and it abounds with populous towns and villages. The capital is Catmandu, in which are about 18,000 houses, containing perhaps 70,000 inhabitants: but Lalit, situated to the south-west, is a more considerable town in point of magnitude, having about 24,000 houses. Not far from this town is a magnificent temple, which excites the admiration of strangers. Another large town is called Batgan, in which are some stately religious structures. Two sects divide the people; one involves a schism from the religion of Tibet, the other leans to the Hindoo system. The people are of a darker hue than their Indian neighbours; and the goitre is not an uncommon blemish among them. They are a brave and spirited race, as the English who fought against them are ready to allow.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] The manufactures of Hindoostan consist principally of muslin and silk. The inhabitants, in all handicraft trades that they understand, are more industrious and skilful than most of the Europeans; and in weaving, sewing, embroidering, and some other manufactures, it is said that they do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of the art of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colors. The fineness of their linen, and their filagree 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 thence drew 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 nearly annihilated; nor is that of the Portuguese, Danes, and Dutch, of much importance.—Among the exports from Hindoostan are diamonds, raw and wrought silk, rice, sugar, spice, and drugs.

The Mohammedan merchants carry on a trade with Mecca, from the western parts of this country, up the Red Sea. This trade is prosecuted in vessels called *junks*, the largest of which, we are told, beside the cargo, will carry above 1000 Moslem 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 junk, returning from this voyage, is often worth 150,000 pounds.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS.] The government of the Mogul emperor was despotic, and such is that of the different native sovereigns who rule the country at present. The empire was hereditary, and the sovereign was heir to his own officers. All lands devolved in the hereditary line, and continued in that state even down to the subtenants, while the lord could pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which were regularly fixed in the public books of each district. The imperial demesne lands were those of the great rajahs, which fell to Timour and his successors. Certain portions of them were called jaghirs, and were bestowed by the crown on the great lords, and, upon their death, reverted to the emperor; but the rights of the subtenants, even of those lands, were indefeasible.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long subsisted, almost without the semblance of virtue among its great officers either civil or military. It was shaken, however, by Kouli Khan's invasion, which was attended by so great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the soubahdars and nabobs became absolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws

of property, they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies, and support their power; so that many, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-masters, were left to perish through want. To sum up the misery of the inhabitants, the Moslem governors employed the Gentoos themselves, and some even of the Brahmins, as the ministers of their rapacity and cruelty. Hindoostan thus became a scene of mere anarchy or stratocracy; every great man protected himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeded the natural riches of his government. To these circumstances the English were principally indebted for their success in India; and whatever may be said of the occasional misconduct of the company and its civil and military servants, it is certain that, wherever their power extends, the natives are less oppressed, and enjoy, with less restriction and greater comfort, the fruits of their industry. With regard to the Hindoo governments, Sir John Malcolm observes, that, "the head of a principality is an hereditary and *absolute* prince:" but, when he affirms, that this "head is the chief of his clan, which extends his power in some respects, but checks it in others," he in a great measure contradicts his former assertion. The fact is, that these princes endeavour to govern absolutely, but cannot do it so effectually as they wish. They have no representative government to control them, but are checked by the interference and remonstrances of the chieftains and other persons of distinction; yet this check does not effectually conduce to the purposes of good government; for the people are scarcely more regarded and relieved than they are under the tyrannical Moslems.

RELIGION.] The theological system of India is so ancient that no time can with any degree of probability be assigned for its origin. Brahma is the supposed prophet and legislator of the Hindoos. It is pretended that he was an angel; that he was permitted to assume the human form, commissioned to act as the sovereign of India, and ordered to impart the divine will to a pagan nation. He represented the Deity as a self-existent being, all-seeing, omnipotent, wise beyond human conception, benevolent, mingling mercy with justice, and determined to save all who are not incorrigibly sinful and wicked; and even the worst sinners, he declared, would not suffer eternal but only temporary punishment. The transmigration of one body into that of another animal, in the way of trial and probation, was a part of his creed; and that abstinence from the consumption of flesh, which was afterwards recommended by Pythagoras, was enjoined as a proof of moral purity and humanity. This religion, in the progress of time, degenerated into a system of gross idolatry, ceremonial absurdity, and shocking cruelty. Other representatives of the Deity, other incarnate angels, or (as some say) human beings deified, are supposed to have followed Brahma at different periods. Vishnu was one of these, and another was Boudh, whose doctrines have been diffused over a great part of Southern Asia. These personages, and other objects of reverence, are represented by uncouth figures, to which worship is paid with little meaning and with no true piety.

The spiritual institutions of the Hindoos are, in some respects, the most remarkable instances of the degradation of the human mind. Religion, or rather superstition, forms the most prominent feature in the aspect of Hindoo society; and, therefore, the Brahmins or priests are the most distinguished persons in the community, and exercise an arbitrary and imposing influence. They are regarded by the ordinary natives as scarcely inferior to the gods. Sometimes they are even objects of adoration, and this circumstance will not excite our

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astonishment, when we consider that the cow, the monkey, and many other animals, receive from the deluded people a species of worship, and that the principal rivers of the country are deemed sacred.

There is perhaps no part of Hindoostan, says sir John Malcolm, where "the tribes of Brahmins are so various and their numbers so great, as in Central India; and, at the same time, there is no province or district where so few of them are either wealthy or learned, or where less attention is paid to the religious rites of the Hindoo faith, or to its priests, by the rest of the population." He also states, that a great number of Brahmins arrived in Central India after it had been wrested by the Mahrattas from the Moslems, and those who were more worldly-minded than the rest were employed in civil and military offices. Their amount, he says, "may be computed at about two thousand families; and, if we suppose two males to have arrived at mature age in every family, and add four thousand men of this tribe who have no settled homes, but are in the service of Mahratta princes and chiefs, we shall not have less than eight thousand educated men, a very small portion of whom are devoted to religious duties, at the utmost not more than one thousand, while the remaining seven thousand constitute that active body of men of business, who carry on all the duties of the Mahratta government, and are the most industrious and intelligent, both of the higher and lower classes of merchants and clerks. We may assume, that there is not one of this class who has not been instructed to read and write; that they are, from the habits of their order, exempt from ebriety and idleness; and that, though very subtle and often unprincipled, they are almost all of decent demeanor, and have remarkable industry and perseverance. The consequence is, they are (generally speaking) the real masters, though only nominal servants, of the rulers by whom they are employed, and the wealth they obtain adds to their influence, both as individuals and as a community."

The ceremonies prescribed by this religion are more numerous and complicated than those of any other system with which we are acquainted. A detail of these ritual observances would be tedious and uninteresting. They deform the purity of religion, and rather obstruct than promote the influence of true piety, with which they have no real connexion; but they may be termed innocent, when compared with the cruel practices which form a part of the same system. A long continuance in the most irksome and harassing postures may be deemed sufficiently absurd: but the devotees are not content without the infliction of positive torture. They wound themselves with knives in various parts of their bodies, swing upon hooks thrust through the muscles of their backs, recline upon spikes of iron, walk on fire, and fall from a height upon sharp instruments; and some suffer themselves to be crushed by the moving car of idolatry. Murder is also a part of their horrible system. Children are drowned in the Ganges, as offerings to that divine stream: sometimes a child is hung upon a tree in a basket, and totally deserted: others are buried alive; and the aged and infirm are frequently left to perish on the banks of a sacred river, or thrown into the stream. The custom of consigning widows to the flames may also be deemed, in one sense, an act of murder on the part of the Brahmins, when (as is generally the case) they influence the wretched female to this unnatural practice. It has been said, that this custom is declining; but there have been numerous instances of it in the face of the British government, which ought to interfere in the most authoritative manner for its suppression.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos are stupendous stone buildings, erected in every capital. 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 have been less exposed to the destructive violence of Mohammedan 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, holden 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; and some of the ornamental parts are finished with great elegance.

The pagoda of Seringham, superior in sanctity to that of Chillambrum, surpasses it as much in grandeur. It is composed of seven square enclosures, one within the other, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. These enclosures 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, 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, while those which form the roof are still larger: in the interior are the chapels.

If the Brahmins are masters of any uncommon art or science, they frequently turn it to the purposes of profit from their ignorant votaries. They know how to calculate eclipses; and judicial astrology is so prevalent among them, that half of the year is taken up with unlucky days, the chief astrologer being always consulted in their councils. The Mohammedans 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 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 which 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.

The reasons above-mentioned account likewise for their being less under the influence of their passions than the inhabitants of other countries. Rice, their chief food, gives them little nourishment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and the women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their persons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women is on the decay at eighteen; at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We ought not, therefore, to wonder at their being soon strangers to all personal exertion and vigor of mind. 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.

[LEARNING.] The Brahmins descend from the Brachmans who are mentioned to us with so much reverence by antiquity; and, although much

inferior, either as their ancestors, they explicitly followed the source of all the knowledge is very scanty and have a good idea of or rhetoric; their are barbarous; and knowledge of anatomy.

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COLLEGES, so Benares; beside on the Malabar coast a Brahmin school a testimony of Ptolemy, and the metropolis of Benares. With British government zeal of Christian 1800, with a view to the conversion of the natives have been the country.

[LANGUAGE.] language; it is words. The language of the great country, and of Delhi; the Dialects of its mode of writing India. The Bengali Guzeratic is spoken is prevalent throughout harmonious and river Kistna, and used in the Deccan coast, though the language of Canara is a pale tongue, which

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inferior, either as philosophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their ancestors, the doctrines which they maintain as priests, are still implicitly followed by the whole nation; and, as preceptors, they are the source of all the knowledge which exists in Hindoostan; but that knowledge is very scanty and imperfect. Of mathematics they know little: 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 composition differs from the correct taste of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Asiatic authors, that deserve 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 many hundred volumes in prose, which treat of the ancient Indians and their history. He adds that the Sanscrit records contain accounts of the affairs of Western Asia, very different from what any of the Arabian writers have transmitted to posterity; and thinks it more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more authenticity, and of greater antiquity than the latter.

[COLLEGES, SCHOOLS.] The great seat of Brahminical learning is Benares; beside which there is an academy of the same kind at Tricriur, on the Malabar coast, that is in great repute. There is also a celebrated Brahmin school at Cangiburam, in the Carnatic, which appears, from the testimony of Ptolemy, to have existed in the first century of the Christian æra, and the members of which are equal in celebrity to the Brahmins of Benares. While these pagan establishments are tolerated by the British government, antidotes to their influence have been provided by the zeal of Christian piety. A college was founded at Calcutta, in the year 1800, with a view of keeping up a regular supply of ministers for the conversion of the Hindoos, and many schools for the instruction of the natives have been organised by the missionaries who are dispersed over the country.

[LANGUAGE.] The Sanscrit is an original and extremely artificial language; 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; the Persian was generally spoken at the court of Dehli; the Devanagari, or Hindoostanic, is spoken at Benares, and its mode of writing has been introduced into all the northern part of India. The Bengalese is a very corrupt dialect, used at Calcutta. The Guzeratic is spoken in the provinces of Guzerat and Sind. The Marashda is prevalent through all the country of the Mahrattas. The Talenga, an harmonious and nervous language, is spoken on the coast of Orissa, on the river Kistna, and as far as the mountains of Balangat. The Tamulac is used in the Decan, Mysour, Madoura, and some parts of the Malabar coast, though there the Malabaric principally prevails. The Canarese, or language of Canara, extends to Goa. To these may be added the Nappalese tongue, which has a great similarity to the Devanagari.

[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 temple formed in a 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; and at the end are three gigantic figures, which the Portuguese endeavoured in vain, with the aid of battering-cannon, to demolish or dislodge; but a part of one, some years ago, suddenly fell. Beside the temple are various images, and groups on each hand, cut in the stone—one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance to the Judgement of Solomon: there is also a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture. All these antiquities are very different from the usual works of the Hindoos.

The wonders of Elora are still more worthy of notice, and one of the number is thus described:—"Conceive my surprise (says captain Seely) at suddenly coming upon a stupendous temple within a large open court, hewn out of the solid rock, with all its parts perfect and beautiful, standing proudly alone upon its native bed, and detached from the neighbouring mountain by a spacious area all round, nearly 250 feet deep and 150 feet broad. This unrivaled fane rears its rocky head to a height of nearly 100 feet, and its length is about 145 feet, and its breadth 62. It has well-formed door-ways, windows, staircases to its upper floor, containing fine large rooms of a smooth and polished surface, regularly divided by rows of pillars. The whole bulk of this immense block of insulated excavation is above 500 feet in circumference, and, extraordinary as it may appear, it has beyond its areas three handsome galleries or verandas, supported by regular pillars, with compartments hewn out of the boundary scarp, containing 42 curious gigantic figures of the Hindoo mythology—the galleries in continuity enclosing the areas, and occupying the almost incredible space of nearly 420 feet of excavated rock, and being, on the average, about 13 feet broad all round, and in height 14 feet and a half, while *above* these, again, are some large excavated rooms."

Another temple is equally magnificent, and a neighbouring mansion, from its immensity of excavation, massy pillars, and rich sculpture, also claims the admiration of the spectator.

HISTORY.] The first warrior whose invasion of India is authentically recorded, was the famous Alexander of Macedon. Genghiz, the khan of the Mongols, also directed his force thither, and, in 1221, drove the emperor from his capital; but, long before that fierce barbarian invaded the country, some Saracen leaders had found their way into it, and established their spurious religion and their despotic sway. Mahmoud, full of ambition and fanaticism, invaded the north-western parts of the country about the beginning of the eleventh century. He treated the Indians with all the rigor of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treasures, demolishing temples, and murdering the people throughout his route. The wealth found by him in Hindoostan was immense. He founded the dynasty of the Gaznavides, who maintained themselves in power until the year 1155, when Kosrou, the thirteenth and last prince of that race, was deposed by Hosein Gauri.

The dynasty of the Gaurides furnished five princes, who possessed nearly the same dominions as their predecessors the Gaznavides. Sheabeddin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, conquered the kingdoms of Moultan and Delhi, and drew thence prodigious treasures. But an Indian who had been rendered desolate by the pollutions and insults to which he saw his gods and temples exposed, made a vow to assassinate Sheabeddin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides finished in 1212, in the person of Mahmoud, who was also cut off by the swords of assassins.

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entered India in 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; and, after an immense slaughter of his fellow-creatures, he at length rendered himself lord of a gigantic empire. He did not, however, complete the conquest of India,—a task which was reserved for his grandson, Zehireddin Mohammed Baber, who, having defeated and slain Ibrahim Lodi, emperor of Hindoostan, in the battle of Paniput, assumed the government under the title of the Great Mogul. This prince died in 1530; and his successors, Hamaïoun and the legislator Achar, extended the bounds of the empire. At length, in 1659, the famous Aurengzebe procured the sovereignty by the deposition of his father Shah-Jehan, and the murder of his eldest brother. Though he commenced his career so iniquitously, he proved an able and politic prince, and greatly improved the resources and exalted the dignity of the empire. He died in 1707, in the 89th year of his age. Four of his grandsons disputed the empire, which, after a sanguinary contest, fell to the eldest, Mauzeddin, 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 officers conspired against him, and raised to the throne one of his nephews. The new emperor, whose name was Ferrukhsir, was influenced and at last enslaved by two brothers, chiefly known by the name of the Seyds, 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, whose diadem they bestowed upon a grandson of Aurengzebe, a youth of seventeen years of age, after imprisoning and strangling Ferrukhsir. The young Mogul soon proved disagreeable to the Seyds; and, having deposed him, 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. He died in 1719, and was succeeded by Mohammed Shah (a great-grandson of Aurengzebe), in whose feeble reign the empire was nearly ruined by that formidable invasion which we have noticed in the history of Persia. As to the various spoils seized by the invaders, some accounts make them amount to two hundred and thirty-one millions sterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of that time. But this estimate is far beyond the truth; and we may more reasonably believe, with Mr. Fraser the orientalist, that Nadir's share did not exceed eighty-seven millions and a half, while his military followers carried off about twelve and a half. This invasion may be considered as putting a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire in the house of Timour. Nadir, however, when he was satiated with blood and pillage, reinstated the Mogul in the sovereignty, and returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces ensued, none being disposed to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power of enforcing it. The empire began to totter to its foundation, every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Dehli, laying claim to jaghirs and to districts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every species of domestic misery.

Amidst these convulsions, the English acquired an extraordinary

degree of power in India. They had been allowed, in 1696, to fortify that part of Calcutta which contained their mercantile establishment. They afterwards obtained complete possession of the town, which they enlarged and improved; and, in 1757, by taking advantage of the internal dissensions of the natives, they raised a dependent prince to the chief authority in Bengal. By continued encroachments, they were gratified with effective power in the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, as tributaries to the nominal emperor, or the king of Delhi. While they were employed, after this great success, in the arts of peace, they found themselves engaged, in 1767, in a dangerous war with Hyder Ali, the sovereign of Mysour. This man had originally been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of the art of war in the camp of the French, and had distinguished himself in their service. Having been advanced to the command of the army of Mysour, he had deposed his sovereign, and usurped the supreme authority, under the title of regent. In a short time he extended his territories on all sides, except the Carnatic, until at last his dominions nearly equaled the island of Great-Britain in extent, with an annual revenue of not less than four millions sterling. The discord 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 troops of the company. The former were pacified with a sum of money, and the latter were in consequence obliged to retire, but, soon afterward, several obstinate engagements took place; and the British, for the first time, found a steady opposition from an Indian prince. When the war had continued with various success for three campaigns, Hyder, with a strong detachment of his army, advanced within a short 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 1771, he received a dreadful defeat. He 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 gain possession of the district of Corah, and other parts of the province of Oude, but were opposed by a British force, which, in the next year, defeated and drove them across the Ganges, when they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occasion the latter had acted only as the allies of the nabob Shujah, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promised to pay forty lacks of rupees for the protection afforded them; but, when the money was demanded, it was, under various pretences, refused; the consequence of which was, that the Rohilla country was, in 1774, invaded and conquered by the British, beside other large tracts.

During the administration of Warren Hastings, a new war arose in India, rather in consequence of his ambitious spirit, than from that necessity which alone could justify it. The Mahrattas were attacked with vigor; and, though the English were at first unsuccessful, they were at length gratified with important advantages. During this war, Hyder Ali, probably expecting assistance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of 100,000 men, in the year 1780. For some time he carried every thing before him; and, when he had nearly destroyed a detachment of the British army, it was

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imagined that the power of the India company would soon be annihilated. By the happy exertions of sir Eyre Coote, however, the progress of this formidable adversary was stopped, and he became weary of a war, which was attended with incredible expense to himself, without any reasonable prospect of success. He therefore intimated a wish for a pacific treaty; but he died before it could be brought to a conclusion. He was succeeded by his son Tippoo, whose hostility to the British government was deeply rooted. The peace which this prince concluded at Mangalour, in 1784, did not permanently secure his fidelity; and the splendid embassy which, not long after that event, he despatched to France, afforded reason to apprehend that some plan was concerted between the old government of that country and the tyrant of Mysour, for the annoyance of Great-Britain in its Indian possessions; but this plan was 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 their settlement of Cochin to his territories, made them tremble for its safety. Beside that town, the Dutch possessed in the same part of India two forts, which Tippoo particularly wished to obtain. To avoid the seizure of these settlements, they sold them to the rajah of Travancour, the ally of the British government. This contract was declared by the sultan to be invalid without his consent, as the two settlements were within his boundaries; and he resolved to chastise the rajah by hostilities. He even deprived that prince of his chief town, and thus drew upon himself the resentment of the powerful company, which, having formed alliances with the nizam and the Mah-rattas, declared war against him. The first campaign was unimportant: but, in 1791, some forts of remarkable strength were reduced, and dispositions were made for entering the small island which contained his capital. When a lodgement had been effected on the isle, all possible preparations were made for a vigorous assault; but he avoided the danger by seasonable submission. He ceded one half of his dominions to the allied powers, and engaged to pay three millions and 300,000 pounds sterling.

The ambition of the sultan was for a time repressed by the victories which had forced him to sign this treaty: he retained, however, the same enmity to the British government, with a strong desire of revenge; and therefore, when a war had arisen between England and France, in consequence of the French revolution, he 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 even to drive the English out of Asia, and share their dominions with the French.

In February 1798, a proclamation was issued by the governor of the Isle of France, importing that envoys had arrived in that island with letters from Tippoo, addressed to the executive directory of France, proposing to conclude an offensive and defensive alliance, to subsidise whatever troops the French might furnish to the sultan, and to commence against the British power in India a war of aggression, for which that prince declared himself to be fully prepared. The circumstances attending this proclamation, on inquiry, established the fact, that Tippoo had formed such an alliance as was mentioned in it; and, as it was strongly suspected that the French expedition to Egypt had for its ultimate object the execution of a plan for the invasion of the British settlements in India, in conjunction with Tippoo, the earl of Mornington (now the marquis Wellesley), having in vain remonstrated with the sultan by letter, made preparations for hostility. The new war was quickly closed. After the battles of Sidasir

and Malavelli, in which the British troops were victorious, the city of Seringapatam was invested by general Harris, and a practicable breach was made in the walls. Moving from the trenches with alacrity, the select battalions 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. Every post was forced: the sultan was found under one of the gates, pierced with many wounds; and ample spoils rewarded the courage of the assailants.

Thus ended the power and life of a formidable enemy of the British government. His death gave a security to our possessions in that country, which they never could have had during his life. His territories were shared by the company, the nizam, and the peishwah, except certain districts, which were assigned to a descendant of the ancient rajahs, on condition of his being a subsidiary to the British government.

Tippoo, when he fell, was about fifty years of age. He was tall in stature, his face was round, with large full eyes, and his countenance full of fire and animation. In his disposition he was cruel, passionate, and revengeful. His abilities were over-rated; for he was neither so wise a statesman, nor so able a general, as he was supposed to be. Though he possessed a considerable share of prudence, and was not, in general, deficient either in promptitude or judgement, he at last fell a victim to ill-considered schemes, dictated by his ambition and thirst of revenge.

His death restored, for a time, tranquillity to India; but, in 1803, hostilities recommenced between the British and native powers. The peishwah, who was considered as under the protection of the company, had been repeatedly attacked, and his power reduced to a shadow, by the Mahratta chiefs Sindiah and Holkar, who, though they professed to him a nominal obedience, were desirous of securing to themselves both his person and authority. Sindiah appears first to have succeeded in this attempt, and was attacked by Holkar, who endeavoured to reduce both him and the peishwah to subjection. The harassed prince applied to the company for protection, which was readily granted. Sindiah and the rajah of Berar now assembled their forces near the nizam's frontiers, and refused to disband them on the requisition of the governor-general. This refusal led to vigorous hostilities. The British troops were put in motion, and they met with their usual success. General Wellesley crossed the Nerbudda, and on the 23d of September, 1803, gained the splendid victory of Assai, while Lake defeated the Mahrattas and their French auxiliaries at Coel, took the fortress of Ali-Gour, and gained the battles of Dehli, Agra, and Laswari. The province of Cuttack, and the districts of Baroach and Cambay, in Guzerat, were wrested from Sindiah, who was compelled to conclude a peace, by which these possessions were confirmed to the English.

In the mean time, Holkar remained in a kind of sullen inactivity; but his troops kept the field, and menaced and occasionally attacked the neighbouring powers which were under British protection. After Sindiah had given up the contest, general Lake marched against Holkar, who was joined by the rajah of Bhurtpour. The defensibility of this town subjected the besiegers to a severe loss; but a continuance of the siege intimidated the rajah into a promise of subservience; and his ally, being defeated at Deeg, and deprived of various fortresses, submitted, in 1803, to the demands of the company.

After this extension of the British power in India, peace prevailed for many years, with the exception of some hostilities against refractory

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chieftains. The horizon was at length darkened, in 1815, by a rupture with the people of Nepal, who, it was affirmed, had encroached on the British territories, and behaved with arrogance and injustice. After a bold resistance, they resigned a part of their frontier, and have since remained in peace.

The Mahrattas had long been disgusted at the influence exercised at Poonah by the British resident. With simplicity of manners, and a religious forbearance of appetite, they unite an enterprising spirit, and a degree of courage which surpasses that of the other Hindoo tribes. This courage they seemed willing to exert, even in defiance of that power which they knew by experience to be very great. Endeavours that were apparently conciliatory, served only to inflame both parties into animosity. Hostilities arose in the Decan, near the close of the year 1817; and the desultory incursions of the Pindarris, or provincial marauders, into those parts of the country which were under British authority or protection, increased the fury of the storm. The rajah of Berar joined the peishwah against the English; but he was chastised for his presumption by a serious defeat. During this war, some chieftains took the opportunity of revolting; and the attack of Talneir, which arose from an incident of that kind, was attended with some remarkable circumstances. When the artillery had played with considerable effect, the British commander ordered the exterior gate to be stormed. Dreading the consequences of an assault, the possessor of the fort offered to capitulate; and, when he had admitted a party of the besiegers to the third gate, he surrendered himself into their hands. Notwithstanding this appearance of submission, the fifth gate was closed by the garrison, consisting chiefly of Arabs, who peremptorily demanded an assent to such terms as they might be inclined to propose. Several officers and a few attendants, finding the means of entrance, were furiously attacked; and, as some valuable lives were thus sacrificed, severe vengeance was taken by their associates, when they had forced a passage by the determined boldness of their movements. About 300 men, forming the remains of the garrison, were instantly subjected to military execution, and the chieftain was hanged on one of the bastions, though it was not certain that his men had committed the outrage with his connivance.

The chieftains Sindiah and Holkar had bound themselves by an explicit agreement to co-operate with the peishwah in this war; but the former, repenting of his rashness, was an ineffective ally to his countrymen, and was easily persuaded to form such engagements as rendered him a mere vassal of the encroaching company. A Patan chief also (styled the nabob Amir Khan) was induced to submit to the British government, which he found himself unable to withstand. Holkar, being more resolute, boldly contended with the enemy; but the battle of Mahidpour crushed his hopes. The strength of the Mahratta position on the abrupt bank of the Sipra served only to stimulate the courage of the Europeans and their native associates, who stormed a range of well-furnished batteries, and obtained a complete victory. A Pindari chief was approaching with 5000 men to join Holkar, when the news of the defeat reached him: he was eagerly pursued; his men were harassed into dispersion; he threw himself on the mercy of his adversaries; and the predatory confederacy was dissolved. This success was obtained, in 1818, under the vigorous administration of the marquis of Hastings.

While lord Amherst acted as governor-general, a war arose with a new enemy. The Birmese, when they were subject to the sway of Alompra, a bold usurper, had augmented their military fame and political

power; and, under his son Shembuan, they had repelled with signal success, in 1767, a formidable invasion from China. They continued to flourish in several succeeding reigns, until at length mutual jealousy, rather than any strong provocation on either side, led to sanguinary hostilities. An asserted claim to the isle of Shapuree, and an unjustifiable interference in the affairs of Cachar, were alleged by the company as grounds of war. Fierce conflicts occurred in that territory and the Chittagong province, before the grand armament from Hindoostan reached the port of Rangoon, in May 1824. That town was not defended by the Birmese; but they furiously ravaged their own country in the hope of obstructing the progress of the invaders, and forined in various parts such stockades or fences of trees, earth, and other substances closely compacted, as were declared by their astrologers to be impregnable, more particularly when the *invulnerables* joined in the operations. The warriors, so called, were distinguished by the short cut of their hair, the peculiar manner in which they were tattooed with the figures of wild beasts, and the custom of wearing pieces of gold and silver (and sometimes precious stones) in their arms, supposed by our officers to have been introduced under the skin at an early age. When some of these posts had been forced with difficulty, others gave equal trouble to the adverse party, and a pagoda was so well defended that the assailants were repelled with considerable loss; but, when it was on the point of being attacked by an additional force, it was abandoned. The province of Martaban was now reduced by the advancing troops; and, when the grand Birmese army appeared, sir Archibald Campbell, with his gallant battalions, withstood a series of attacks for six days, and drove his opponents from all parts of the field. Their war-boats and fire-rafts were, about the same time, brought into action in the Irrawaddi; but the British vessels, aided by a steam-boat, soon baffled this attack. Farther hostilities so favored the invading host, that the discouraged foe consented to purchase peace by various cessions. A treaty was signed; and, when it had been violated by the Birmese prince, it was sanctioned by a renewal. He resigned to the company the province of Aracan, and the districts of Mergui, Tavoy, and Zea, and agreed to the nomination of the future princes of Asam and Cachar by the British government.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	1650	} between	{ 2 and 27 north latitude.	}	700,000
Breadth	800				

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country is bounded by Tibet and China on the north; by China and the Chinese Sea on the east; by the same sea and the strait of Malacca on the south; and by the Bay of Bengal and Hindoostan on the west. It consists of the following states and pro-

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vines,—Asam, Aracan, Pegu, Ava, Martaban, Siam, Malacca, Laos, Cambodia, Cochin-China, and Tonquin.

The country of **ASAM** is situated to the east of Bengal. The Burmampouter divides it into two parts, of which the northern is called Uttarcul, and the southern Dacshinul. The products are cocoa, pepper, ginger, sugar, and various kinds of fruit, as oranges, mangoes, and pine-apples. Gold is found in every part of the country by washing the sands of the rivers, and is one of the sources of the public revenue.

Asam was governed, some years ago, by a rajah who resides at Ghergong, the capital. This city is encompassed with a bound hedge of bamboos, and has four gates constructed of stone and clay. Before every house is a garden, and the whole resembles a fortified enclosure of villages. A river flows through the town, and on its banks stands the rajah's palace, decorated with lattice-work and carving, and containing lofty halls, about one of which are arranged polished stones and plates of brass or iron, which, when the solar rays strike upon them, shine like mirrors. That prince assumed the title of the heavenly being, pretending that one of his ancestors came down from the heaven of the Hindoos by a golden staircase, and settled in Asam, because he regarded it as an earthly paradise. In consequence of this notion of his superior nature, he offered no homage to the common idola, which, indeed, are not much respected by any one.

The people are not very enlightened, but they are a stout and brave race. They had repeatedly resisted invasions with success; but, in the year 1817, the Birmese made themselves masters of the country; and, in the year 1825, another change of government arose from the success of the British arms. The fort of Rungpour, which commands the capital, was taken, and the Birmese were obliged to relinquish all authority over the territory of Asam, which, on the adjustment of a treaty of peace, was ordered to be given up to a prince whom the European conquerors should select for the government of the country,

ARACAN was governed by a rajah whose predecessors had flourished in a state of independence, when it was invaded (near the close of the last century) by the Birmese, and reduced to subjection. It remained under their yoke until the year 1725, when it was subdued by the British arms. It consists of four provinces, extending along the bay of Bengal. The climate is insalubrious; but the soil in general is fertile, and the crops of grain are abundant. A considerable trade is carried on between the natives and the people of Bengal; the former exporting lead, tin, some of the precious metals, various kinds of fruit, rice, bees'-wax, ivory, and small horses. The capital stands on a rocky plain, surrounded by hills. As it is liable to inundations, the houses are raised upon strong piles. They are chiefly thatched hute, constructed of bamboos and timber; and their amount is said to exceed 18,000; but a considerable number attest, by being unroofed or damaged, the injurious effects of war. Within the city is an old stone fort, which was the seat of government, and there is a hill surmounted by four pagodas. The surrounding heights likewise abound with temples, in which is a profusion of painting and gilding. Some of the porticoes of these buildings are handsome, and there are rocky excavations, ornamented with images of Boudh, and curious sculptures on the walls. The inhabitants are more civilised than the Asamese, and also more industrious. The women are tolerably fair; but the longest ears are reckoned the most beautiful, and in these they wear many rings.

PEGU formerly flourished as an independent kingdom; and its capital

was a large and splendid city; but, about the beginning of the seventeenth century, the country was conquered by the king of Ava or Bir-mah, and the kingdoms were united till about the year 1740, when the Peguans rebelled, and in a few years subdued, in their turn, the kingdom of Ava. In 1757, however, the Birmeso, under Alom-Fra, who became their sovereign, shook off the yoke, and again subdued Pegu. The brutal conqueror destroyed the chief town, and dispersed the inhabitants; but, about the year 1790, Minderaji, one of his successors, gave orders for re-building the city. The streets of the new town are wide and regular, and well paved with brick; the houses are formed of mats and boards, supported on posts. The most striking object is the pagoda of *Shoe-Madoo* (the golden God), the body of which stands on one terrace raised above another. It is a brick building, octagonal at the base, and spiral at the top: each side of the base extends to 162 feet, a breadth which diminishes abruptly. A wide projection, lower than the inferior terrace, encompasses the base, and exhibits fifty-seven small spires; and on a higher ledge are fifty-three; and the whole building is crowned with a sort of umbrella, of open iron-work. On an angle of the upper terrace two handsome saloons have been erected, and at other angles are miniature temples, resembling the great one. On both terraces are flags, raised on bamboo poles, and on the top of each flag-staff is a goose, the symbol both of the Birnese and the Peguans.

AVA, or (as it is called by the natives) Miama, is divided from Aracan by a mountainous ridge, and extends southward to Pegu. Its sovereign, the Birman emperor, had so extended his territories by military success, that, when he was embroiled with the India company, he had, in all probability, nine millions of subjects, and almost 450,000 capable of bearing arms. These men, in war, are bold, alert, and enterprising; but, in peace, they are inactive and indolent.—At home (says major Snodgrass, who fought against them) “they are decidedly lazy, and averse to work, the wife being allowed, or rather compelled, to toil for the support of the family, while the husband passes his time in idleness, smoking, or chewing betel, the favorite pastime of natives of all ranks. His wants, however, are few and simple; rice and a little pickled fish constitute the chief articles of food, while water is his only drink: naturally good-humored and contented, he seems happy and resigned, bearing all the oppressions, to which he may be subjected, with apathy and indifference; and in his own house he is kind and affectionate to his children. Yet it must be allowed, that the Birnese are little guided or restrained in their conduct and actions by any moral principle: selling their daughters, even to strangers, is a common practice among them; nor does the transaction reflect either disgrace or shame on the parties concerned. Government, upon political grounds, strictly prohibits any woman from leaving the country; and the unhappy females, who are sacrificed to this disgraceful custom, generally return to their families, in no way slighted or degraded, but more frequently, as objects of envy, from the little stock of wealth they bring back with them.—It has often been objected to the Birnese, that they are given to pilfering, lying, and dissimulation, as well as insolent and overhearing to strangers; but the remark may be, in a great measure, confined to the numerous government functionaries and their followers, with whom every town and village in the kingdom abound: these are indeed a vile race, who exist by fraud and oppression, and who, upon numerous pretences, are always ready to rob and plunder all who come within the influence of their authority: the poor people, on the contrary, the best part of the nation, are frank and hospi-

table, and by no more civilised nation acute, intelligent with high notions to strangers or for their character, those of education government.”

The Birnese but they have no ship as their Bra Romanists. The Lent, which is fed and they are add pay great respect to save a crimin The priests are b monasteries. T shaven, drink w

In their shap and lank locks, tribes. The wo cately formed; to corpulence; tall, but active the custom of as of a short, of a lozenge, the bones it is very are very narrow the highest; th that feature in mouth is in gen who reside in Hindoo or the empire ever ac ple of both sex wrapped round and descends with long slee the waist, whi it, and, round twice, and res

The late c by Minderagi city.” A gre from Ava, t structed than The palace, l former consi while the an structure glit sent emperor of restoring The chief

table, and by no means deficient in qualities which would do honor to more civilised nations. They, very generally, can read and write; are acute, intelligent, and observing; and, although frequently impressed with high notions of their own sovereign and country, show no illiberality to strangers or foreigners who reside among them. In a word, to sum up their character, their virtues are their own, and their faults and vices those of education, and the pernicious influence of a cruel and despotic government."

The Birmese seem to have borrowed their religion from Hindoostan: but they have not so steadily or uniformly preserved their faith and worship as their Brahmin neighbours. In some respects they resemble the Romanists. They are fond of processions; they observe a species of Lent, which is followed by public festivity; in praying they use rosaries; and they are addicted (but not the women) to monastic seclusion. They pay great respect to their priests, whose influence is sometimes allowed to save a criminal from execution, merely by touching him on his way. The priests are bound to celibacy, and generally reside together in the monasteries. They wear coarse yellow garments, have their heads shaven, drink water, and receive alms.

In their shape and stature, their square features, yellow complexion, and lank locks, the Birmese bear a strong resemblance to the Monghol tribes. The women are fairer than the Hindoo females, but not so delicately formed; they are, however, well made, though in general inclined to corpulence; their hair is black, coarse, and long. The men are not tall, but active and athletic, and have a very youthful appearance from the custom of plucking their beards. Dr. Buchanan describes them as of a short, squat, robust, fleshy make, with a face in the shape of a lozenge, the forehead and chin being sharpened, while at the cheek bones it is very broad. Their eye-brows project very little, their eyes are very narrow, and placed rather obliquely, the external angles being the highest; the nose is small, but has not the flattened appearance of that feature in the negro; the nostrils are circular and divergent; the mouth is in general well-shaped; the hair harsh, lank, and black. Those who reside in the warmest climate do not acquire the deep hue of the Hindoo or the Negro; nor do such as live in the coldest parts of the empire ever acquire the clear bloom of an European. The common people of both sexes often wear only a single garment like a sheet, which, wrapped round the body, and tucked under each arm, crosses the breast, and descends to the ancles: but men of a higher class wear a tight coat, with long sleeves of muslin or fine nankin, and also a silk wrapper round the waist, while the women of equal rank have a short shift, a jacket over it, and, round the waist, a long piece of silk or cloth, which encircles them twice, and reaches to the feet.

The late capital of the empire was Amerapoura, which was dignified by Minderagi, who built it in 1783, with the appellation of the "immortal city." A great quantity of materials for this town had been removed from Ava, the old metropolis; but it is not more handsomely constructed than the old collection of wooden houses and huts of matting. The palace, however, and the fort, are fine buildings. One part of the former consists of a square building with battlements and a flat roof, while the angles are adorned with Tuscan pilasters; and the body of the structure glitters with gilding. Not satisfied with the new town, the present emperor began, in 1824, to erect a palace at Ava, with an intention of restoring the former capital to its ancient importance.

The chief Birman port is Rangoon, where the Irrawaddi is very com-

modious for shipping. The town forms a square, environed by a high stockade; and there is a fort, within which the officers of the government and the principal inhabitants reside. On account of the vicinity of extensive teak-forests, ship-building forms a very considerable part of the occupation of the natives, who follow, in this branch of art, the French model. The commercial articles received at this port consist chiefly of coarse piece-goods, broad cloth, glass, and hard-ware, sent from British India; and the returns are almost entirely in teak, though the Birmese have many other valuable products and commodities,—namely, cotton, indigo, ivory, marble, the finest metals, and precious stones.—The country bordering upon this town is not flat and swampy, like many parts of the Birman territory, but rises in gentle slopes, not artificial (as some say) but natural. The soil is fertile, producing rice of a good quality in great plenty; and the pastures abound with fine cattle. The air is pure, and its general salubrity is evinced by the appearance of the inhabitants, who are a hale robust race.

MARTABAN is a country to the south-east of Pegu, and was formerly an independent kingdom, but now makes a part of the Birman empire. The soil is fertile in rice, fruit, and wine. The capital was once a much-frequented sea-port, and one of the most flourishing commercial towns in the East, being situated on a capacious bay, affording an excellent harbour for the largest ships; but, after the conquest of the country by the Birmese prince, 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 was formerly rich and flourishing, and it still soars above contempt. It has withstood, yet not without territorial loss, the enterprising ambition of the Birmese, and maintains the dignity of independence. The country may be considered as an immense valley, formed by a double chain of mountains: in some places its breadth exceeds 230 miles, and it is about 500 miles in length. Its capital is Bangkok, situated so near the Meinam, that few of the most distant houses extend above 150 yards from the banks: the majority have a still close connexion with the stream, for they float on bamboo rafts, secured to the bank. These aquatic habitations, which are chiefly occupied by Chinese, are divided into several apartments, and those which serve as shops in the day-time are sleeping-rooms at night. They have a neat appearance, and are more substantially constructed than the houses of the Siamese. The mansions of the nobles are covered with a diminishing series of three or four tiled roofs, sometimes terminated by a spire. The royal palace is situated on the left bank of the river, upon a long but narrow island. It is surrounded by a wall which has many bastions and gates. Not only the king and his ministers, but all who are connected with his court, reside within this space. The greater part, however, of the spot enclosed by the wall, consists of waste ground, swamps, and fruit-gardens. The temples in general have rows of buildings within the sacred enclosure; but the place of worship itself is merely one spacious hall, fantastically ornamented, having many idols on a broad platform or altar, and displaying on the interior wall, in tasteless portraiture, various subjects of Hindoo mythology.

The most common artisans in the town are black-smiths, tin-smiths, and curriers. The tin articles are polished so as to look like silver; and the preparation of leather is carried on to a great extent, not for the purpose of making shoes, which are scarcely used, but for covering mattresses and pillows, and for exportation to China.

The Siamese, in stature. A face on each side, the hair jaw, teeth blackened, mark the general appearance. The Siamese wear their hair in a knot, and the women usually wear a short knot in the loins to the knees of a higher class.

Women enjoy freedom in the Birmese empire, or even to sail in the sea, but confine herself to the females, of more than one.

The Siamese are witnesses dramatic bull-races, cock-fights.

The peninsula of Malacca, but it is very narrow, pepper, and gums, a branch of the trade. They are a distinct, wholly destitute of the Malays are to be seen.

It has been supposed, when it was first discovered, by the Dutch, Goa and Ormus. Its decline; and this industrious, ingenious, and tyrannical, from their degradation, taken from the latter use of ships, from the commerce was considered the order themselves. In the city and for the subjects of the territory in any part, native princes of the island possession, repeatedly remonstrated, rivals in trade; signed all their indulgence.

The kingdom of Siam, but this is now the laws of it that c

The Siamese, in general, are rather below than above the middle stature. A face remarkably large, a very broad forehead, prominent on each side, the hairy scalp very low, large cheek-bones, a swollen lower-jaw, teeth blackened from choicc, a yellow complexion, and other *beauties*, mark the genuine native. The people generally go naked from the waist upwards, sometimes throwing a piece of cloth over the shoulders. Old women usually expose the bosom: but the young and the middle-aged wear a short piece of cloth round the chest, of sufficient length to form one knot in front, thus leaving the shoulders and arms bare. From the loins to the knees a piece of colored cloth extends, over which persons of a higher class wear Chinese crape or a shawl.

Women enjoy far less freedom and consideration in Siam than they do in the Birnese empire. The wife is not allowed to eat with her husband, or even to sail in the same boat. She must attend no public amusements, but confine herself to her domestic duties. Even the heaviest labor devolves on the females, of whom, we may add, the men are allowed to marry more than one. As the men thus domineer over the women, so the king tyrannises over the men.

The Siamese are fond of amusements. They gamble with avidity; witness dramatic representations with delight; divert themselves with bull-races, cock-fights, wrestling, rope-dancing, and fire-works.

The peninsula of MALACCA is not less than 450 miles in length; but it is very narrow. Its chief produce consists of tin, ivory, canes, pepper, and gums. The people are considered by some geographers as a branch of the Mongol or Tartaric race; while others maintain that they are a distinct race. They are fierce and vindictive, but are not wholly destitute of good qualities. Traces of a people still ruder than the Malays are to be found in the mountainous parts of this country.

It has been supposed that this is the Golden Chersonesus 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. Its wealth and importance, however, are now on the decline; and this degeneracy of the Malays, who were formerly an industrious, ingenious people, is easily accounted for, by the long-continued tyranny of the Dutch, who did not wish that they should recover from their degrading state of ignorance and slavery. This town was taken from the Dutch by the English, in August 1795, before which time the latter used to carry on a smuggling kind of trade in their countryships, from the coast of Coromandel and the Bay of Bengal. This commerce was connived at by the Dutch governor and council, who little regarded the orders of their superiors, provided that they could enrich themselves. In the treaty of the year 1824, it was agreed, that not only the city and fortress should be ceded to his Britannic majesty, but that the subjects of the king of the Netherlands should never establish a factory in any part of the peninsula, or conclude treaties with any of the native princes or states. Sincapour, a town on the coast, is also a British possession, and its commerce is not inconsiderable. The Dutch repeatedly remonstrated against the occupation of this settlement by their rivals in trade; but they were apparently satisfied when the English resigned all their possessions in Sumatra to those who had no claim to such indulgence.

The kingdom of LAOS, or LAHOS, formerly included that of Jangoma: but this is now subject to the Birnese emperor. We know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is said to be very populous, to

abound in all the rich commodities as well as the gross superstitions of the East, and to be divided into many small principalities, which, however, are dependent on one despotic sovereign.

CAMBODIA is abundantly productive of the necessaries and luxuries of life. It was formerly a considerable kingdom, but was at length in a great measure divided amongst the neighbouring powers. The province of Chantibond, which was wrested from its sovereign by the Cochinchinese, from whom it was taken by Peyatac, the Chinese usurper of the throne of Siam, may serve as a specimen of the rest of the country. It is diversified by lofty mountains, extensive forests, and fertile valleys and plains.

COCHIN-CHINA and TONQUIN are now under the government of one sovereign. About two centuries ago, a prince of the Tonquinese royal family rebelled against the king, and, being defeated, fled with his adherents into Cochinchina, where a settlement was easily obtained. The fugitives and their posterity gradually seized the whole country, and a flourishing kingdom evinced, during many reigns, the political wisdom of the rulers of the nation. Intestine and sanguinary commotions at length arose from the ambition of three brothers, one of whom added Tonquin to the former realm. The vigor of Kangshun, however, in 1804, restored peace and order to the state, and that prince died in 1820, with the reputation of a great general and an able statesman. His son now reigns over both realms, which appear (as far as population is a criterion of national prosperity) to flourish under his sway; but Mr. Finlayson denies this inference, and asserts that the Cochinchinese, in particular, exist in a state of debasing poverty, chiefly produced by an "avaricious, illiberal, and despotic government." They bear a greater resemblance to the Chinese, in their appearance and manners, than to the subjects of the Birmese prince; but they have neither the talent nor the industry of the people of the "celestial empire."

The capital of Cochinchina is Huè, or Hoa, which, when visited by Mr. Finlayson in 1822, made a strong impression upon him and his associates by the magnitude of its fortifications and the abundant stock of its spacious arsenal; but he adds, that the town itself is "rather paltry, and the greater part of the ground on which it stands appears to be laid out in ill-cultivated gardens, attached to miserable huts. The bazars have an appearance of poverty; yet the regularity of the streets gives an air of neatness to the place, and the view both of the country and town, as seen from the rampart, must be considered very fine. The public granaries consist of a vast number of well-built substantial storehouses; the palace is surrounded by handsome rows of barracks, which are very complete in their structure, and would lose little in comparison with the best that we have in England."

Cachao, or Kesho, the chief town of Tonquin, is not better built than Huè; but the inhabitants seem to be more industrious, and to enjoy a greater degree of comfort, because they are more benefited by the metallic and other products of their country, than the Cochinchinese. They carry on the silken manufacture with success, and supply their neighbours with the fruit of their skill.

Chiampa, or Siampa, was an independent state; but it is now subject to the king of Cochinchina. Saygon, its principal town, is exceedingly populous; and the inhabitants are distinguished by their skill in ship-building.

INDIAN

THE JAPAN is which constitute a Japanese, Nipon; the European name in breadth. The hills, and valleys, are several volcanic state of eruption. prohibited from digging any metal without express permission. supportable, were winter is equally in the soil, which is not seem to be no pe wolves, foxes, and a country so population; but if, as million of men in be between twenty

The complexion some few, chiefly eyes and eye-brows noses are short and may with more proportion of the world, as is uniform from the sexes, and (which space of 2500 years the middle with a lower class of color them than men, and with gold or silver with upright posture out and within, but the upper one with pantiles, larger two feet from the laid. The public is true, and more the roofs, which space, form their gates

The towns are gates, and frequent towers, especially Jeddo, the capital twenty-one-hour the streets are streets; and at ea

THE
INDIAN AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN islands consist of three large and many smaller islands, which constitute an extensive monarchy. The largest is called, by the Japanese, Nipon; but, by the Chinese, Sipun and Jepuen, whence arose the European name of Japan. It is about 700 miles in length, and 75 in breadth. The whole country consists almost entirely of mountains, hills, and valleys, and an extensive plain is scarcely to be seen. There are several volcanoes in these islands, one of which is constantly in a state of eruption. Gold is found in several parts; but the people are prohibited from digging up more than a stated quantity; nor can a 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 intense. A great deal of rain falls for some weeks, rendering the soil, which is most industriously cultivated, exuberantly fertile. There seem 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 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 among the 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. Their dress 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 lowest 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 stuff. 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 floors; but the upper one 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, form their greatest ornaments.

The towns are sometimes of a considerable size, always secured with gates, and frequently surrounded with walls and fosses, and adorned with towers, especially if the governor of a province keeps his court there. Jeddo, the capital of Nipon, and of the whole country, is said to be twenty-one-hours' walk in circumference, or about twenty-one leagues: 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,—a very frequent accident in that city.

The furniture of a Japanese house is as simple as the style of building. Cupboards, bureaus, sofas, beds, tables, or chairs, are rarely found in the apartments. To the greater part of these the people 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 toilettes. Notwithstanding the severity of their winter, which obliges them to warm their houses from November to March, they have neither fireplaces nor stoves; instead of these they use large copper pots standing upon legs. These are lined with loam, on which ashes are laid to some depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which seems to be prepared in a mode that renders the fumes of it not at all dangerous. The first compliment offered to a stranger, is a dish of tea; and a pipe of tobacco constitutes the next offer. Fans are used by both sexes equally, and are, within or without doors, their inseparable companions. The people 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*; beside whom there is a spiritual or ecclesiastical emperor called the *Dairi*. The veneration entertained for the latter is little short of the honors paid to the gods. He seldom goes out of his palace, his person being considered as too sacred to be exposed to the air, to 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. He always wears silken apparel, which, from the first preparation of the article to the completion of the dress, is manufactured by the unsullied hands of pure virgins. His hair, nails, and beard, are accounted so sacred that they are never suffered to be cleaned or cut by day-light; but this must be done by stealth, during the night, while he is asleep. He 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 honor; but the real power is exercised by the *kubo*, who secures that advantage by keeping the imperial revenue in his own hands, and by not allowing to the *dairi* any share in the command of the army. The ancestors of the latter were for many centuries in the possession of undivided power; but, about 230 years ago, a military commander seized the administration, which he left to his posterity; and the *Dairi* became thenceforward little more than the chief priest of the empire. The whole power, however, is not monopolised by the *Kubo*; for the empire (says captain Golownin) consists of many distinct principalities, beside the provinces which he governs by his represen-

tatives. Of the hundred; and, when times brings 60,000 numerous; but the Europe when cast dresses and good h The infantry, besides bows, and arrows.

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tatives. Of the ruling princes, he adds, there are more than two hundred; and, when the prince of Sindai appears in the capital, he sometimes brings 60,000 persons in his train. The military force is very numerous; but the artillery is nearly in the same state as it was in Europe when cast cannon began to be used. The cavalry have rich dresses and good horses, and are armed with sabres, pikes, and pistols. The infantry, beside the two first weapons, have matchlocks, daggers, bows, and arrows.

The religious system of Japan partakes of idolatrous superstition; and the people ostensibly adore a multiplicity of reputed deities. On approaching a mountain in their travels, they are expected to pray to the God who is supposed to be enshrined in it; but, to avoid that formality, they turn an iron plate round the top of a post, near the sacred spot, and this mechanical operation is deemed equivalent to a prayer. Three times in a day they pray in the temples; and prostration before the supreme God, in his holy house, is one of their principal ceremonies, which must not, however, be performed without a preparatory ablution. It is said that their great men particularly detest Christianity: but it is less from a dislike to that religion, than from a political dread of that revolution which might result from an encouragement of it.

To the useful arts, particularly agriculture, the Japanese pay great attention. They are excellent workmen in iron and copper; their manufactures of silk and cotton yield to those of no eastern country; the excellence of their lackered or *japanned* ware is well known; and their porcelain is deemed superior to that of China. Instead of confining the benefit of their trade to the Dutch, who procured that indulgence by mean compliances, it now appears that they suffer the Russians to partake of it; and, with a view of promoting it, they have even established a commercial gazette, and created a paper currency.

FORMOSA is situated to the eastward of China, and is divided by mountains which run 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 which lies to the west of the mountainous chain belongs to the Chinese, who consider the possessors of the eastern portion 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 HAINAN is about sixty leagues long, and fifty 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, while the coast and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, are possessed by the Chinese.

Between Formosa and Japan, are many islands, some say thirty-six, of which Leoo-Keoo, or Loo-Choo, is the principal. Napchan, in the north-western part of the great island, is the seat of government; and the natives enjoy the honor and benefit of a literary college, founded by the emperor Kang-hi. The people are gay and courteous: and their manners partake more of the Japanese than the Chinese character: but the kingdom, which was independent before the fourteenth century, is tributary to China.

The LADRONE islands, of which the chief is Guam, are about twelve in number. Their name signifies the island of robbers, the natives, when they were first discovered by 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.

Tinian is well known from the romantic description given of it by the ingenious narrator of Anson's voyage: but it has since been discovered, that the account is much too favorable.

The PHILIPPINES form a very numerous groupe of islands, in the Chinese Sea, of which Manilla, or Luçonia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 150 broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintadoes, or painted people, and Mestizos, a mixture of all these. The islands belong to the king of Spain, as they were conquered by the Spaniards in the reign of Philip II. 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. 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 large species of monkey, 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 be 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 *amet* supplies the natives with water; and there is a kind of cane, which, if cut, yields a sufficiency of clear water for a draught; this abounds in the mountains, where water is most wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 20,000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the distance of three leagues, and defended by the castle of St. Philip. The town is well built, and exhibits many splendid churches; and its fortifications are not contemptible: yet it was reduced in 1762 by the English, 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 a great part of the ransom never was paid.

The natives of Luçonia are intelligent, dexterous, and docile; and, though the warmth of the climate encourages indolence, many of them are very diligent and industrious. They are treated by the Spaniards with unmerited contempt, and are oppressed by the injudicious policy of the government, which, while it abridges the accommodations of the people, obtains not a tenth part of the benefit that might be derived from an enlightened management of the commercial and civil concerns of the colony.

The other Philippine islands, particularly Mindanao, the largest next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, many of whom are called sultans, and are of the Mohammedan persuasion. Though these islands are enriched with all the profusion of nature, they are subject to dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightening; and the soil is pestered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whose poisons kill almost instantaneously. Some of the mountains are volcanic.

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. There are five of them, namely, Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tidore. As these

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islands produce neither corn nor rice, 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 spice to other nations. These islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three sultans in subordination to the Dutch.

Bachian is the largest of these islands, being about fifty miles in length and twenty in breadth. It resembles a double oval, with a broad isthmus in the centre. Gold dust is said to be found here.—Ternate is not more than twenty-five miles in circumference: but the sultan has a respectable force, both military and naval.

The ten BANDA ISLANDS are small territories, the largest of the number being not more than eight miles in length and five in breadth. They were 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. They were restored in 1802; and, though also taken in the last war, are again in the possession of the Dutch. The nutmeg-tree grows to the size of a pear-tree; the leaves resemble those of the laurel; and it bears fruit from the age of ten to one hundred years. The great nutmeg-harvest is in July and August.

AMBOYNA is 70 miles in circumference, and is chiefly a mountainous country. The climate is hot, but not insalubrious, and the vegetable products are numerous; but the clove-tree is the principal object of attention. The interior is inhabited by a wild race, of malignant propensities: in other parts, there are people of different features and appearance, indolent and effeminate; and many Chinese and Europeans have at various times settled in the island. The capital is neatly and regularly built; and, beside the fortifications by which the town is defended, strong posts are formed in other situations. The British court, having apparently forgotten the horrible massacre committed on the English colonists of this island by the Dutch, in the reign of James I., restored it at the late pacification.

The island of CELEBES, or MACASSAR, is situated partly under the equator, between Borneo and the Spice Islands, and is about 500 miles long and 150 broad. This island, notwithstanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. It contains mines of gold, but its chief articles of trade 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 many settlements on this island; but the interior is governed by independent chieftains. 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 and dangerous animals. They are said to be hospitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a great trade with the Chinese. Their port of Jampoden is the most capacious of any in that part of the world.

GILOLO, which is likewise under the equator, is about 200 miles long and 30 broad, and produces rice and sago, but no spice, though it lies near the spice islands. It is inhabited by a fierce and savage race.

CERAM is about 150 miles long and 30 broad. The Dutch have a fort here; and they have destroyed almost all the clove-trees on the island, to enhance the value of those of the other islands.

The **SUNDA ISLANDS** comprehend Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Banca, &c.

BORNEO is said to be 800 miles long, and 600 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 frequently dwell 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 *ourau-outang* is a native of this country, and is thought, of all irrational beings, to resemble a man the most. The inhabitants of the internal parts are a brutal race: yet some say that they are not worse than the Malays, or the other inhabitants of the coast. The chief port of this island is *Benjar-Masscen*, and the inhabitants carry 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 strait of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, and is 900 miles long and 150 broad. It produces so much gold that it has been thought to be the *Ophir* mentioned in the Scriptures; but Mr. Marsden, the able historian of the island, thinks that it was unknown to the ancients.

The English India company long possessed *Bencoolen* and the adjacent parts of this island; but these settlements have been lately transferred to the Dutch, rather in the spirit of generosity than of sound policy. The king of *Achen* is the chief of the Moslem princes who possess the coasts. The interior parts are governed by Pagan princes; and the natural products are nearly the same with those of the neighbouring islands.

Rain is very frequent here; sometimes very heavy, and usually attended with thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon, as there are several volcanoes on the island. The people who inhabit the coast are Malays, and, as they belong to a remarkable race, they claim more than transient notice. They are (says Mr. Anderson) of a dark yellowish complexion, stout in general; their limbs are well shaped, their persons upright, and they walk rather gracefully. They are low in stature. The men wear their hair long, and their teeth are filed when young, having a jet-black glossy appearance. The men pluck the hair from their chins, very few having the smallest appearance of a beard. The women are fair, with dark expressive eyes; but their ears are disfigured by large holes, into which rings of gold filagree, of an enormous size, are introduced; the poorer classes contenting themselves with a ring of wood, or a piece of plantain leaf rolled up, which fills the aperture. The men are usually dressed in jackets of European chintz or white cloth, with *Achenese* trowsers, a tartan petticoat, and a batik or European kerchief on the head; and a handkerchief which contains betel is usually hung over one shoulder. The women wear long garments of blue or white cloth, with a cotton or silk sarong or petticoat. Their hair is neatly fastened by long gold, silver, or copper pins, according to the rank of the individual. Females of the higher order wear also a zone of silk or cloth, fastened round the waist with a gold biading, and a handkerchief slung over the left shoulder.

The men are not a very civilised race; but, when they are not roused to anger or resentment, they are social and friendly; fond of their wives, and still more of their children. Any man who can afford to support four wives, may have that number. If one should be cast off for misconduct or barrenness, he may supply her place by another. There is no limitation of the number of concubines. The crime of adultery is punishable by the death of both offenders.

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In the Malayan towns and villages, the greater part of the habitations may be termed huts; but even these are commodiously constructed. Mr. Anderson's description of Jambi, on the eastern coast, will serve to show the style of building.—“Many of the houses are sided and partitioned in a neat manner with planks, and roofed with tiles of excellent manufacture. A few are covered with thatched roofs, and some have their sides constructed of large thick pieces of bark. Beside these and the huts of matting, there are many houses upon rafts of huge trunks of trees, which, during the periodical swellings of the river, are afloat and moveable, but in the dry season are generally lodged on a sandy flat. There are also little rafts supporting small huts, attached to the better class of houses, and used for the convenience of bathing, of which the women in particular seem to be very fond.”

The Malays in general profess the Mohammedan system of religion; but they are not rigid observers of its ordinances. Their governments are arbitrary, their sultans and chieftains being uncontrolled by law, and little influenced by a sense of humanity. The interior parts of the island are chiefly occupied by a different race, who have hitherto had little connexion with the Europeans, and who live in small villages, most of which are governed by separate chiefs. All these communities have laws, some written ones, by which they punish offenders, and terminate disputes. They have almost all of them, and particularly the women, large swellings in the throat, like the goitres of the Alps.

A part of the country, extending across the island to the bay of Tappanooli, is inhabited by a people called Battas, who differ from the other nations of Sumatra in language, manners, and customs. They have no king, but live independently, and their tribes are 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; 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 through a man's foot. Such of their enemies as fall into their hands, it is said, 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 polygamy; a man may purchase as many wives as he may wish to have; 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 a 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.

BANCA, near the south-eastern part of Sumatra, is about 95 miles long and 30 broad. It is famous for its nines, from which four millions of pounds of tin are annually obtained for the Dutch by the industry of the Chinese colonists. It was for some years in the possession of the English; but they gave it to the king of the Netherlands in exchange for Cochin on the Malabar coast.

JAVA is more known for being the chief seat of the Dutch power in India, than for the general importance of the island. Its length is about 600 miles, and its breadth 90. Notwithstanding the insalubrity of the climate in the maritime parts, the Dutch erected on its north-western coast the city of Batavia, in 1619, which, with the exception of a short interval of British possession, they have retained to the present time. Their fondness for water prompted them to divide and disperse the stream of the neighbouring river into numerous stagnant canals, so as to deprive

it of the natural impetus which would have kept its channel clear and free from impurities. Thus they increased the unhealthiness of the spot; but, with their usual phlegmatic indifference, they disregarded all dangers of this kind. This city, for its magnificence, was called the queen of the East; but (says sir Stamford Raffles) little of that splendor is now to be found. "Streets have been pulled down, forts demolished, and palaces leveled with the dust." Those portions which are occupied by the Javans, Malays, Chinese, and other Orientals, are meanly built; and, though the houses in the division appropriated to the Europeans are spacious, they are inelegant, and even the public edifices are neither numerous nor splendid. A literary society, which was instituted in 1777, cannot be said to flourish, or to illuminate, in any great degree, the dullness of the place or the people. It is said, that the population amounted, about fifty years ago, to 150,000; but the present number is only a third part of that estimate.

To the west of Batavia is Bantam, a port which was formerly much frequented by European vessels. This was the capital of a considerable monarchy, founded by a Mohammedan prince; but the Dutch made gradual encroachments on the territories of the natives, and at length brought the king completely under their yoke. The city was easily taken by the English, in 1811; and it appears that, during their short sway, they arbitrarily deposed the vassal prince, and placed another on the throne, who soon resigned his power. There are still, however, several princes on the island, whose power has withstood the intrigues and efforts of the Hollanders.

The products of Java are nearly the same with those of the other oriental islands. Its coffee is esteemed: rice, sugar, pepper, and the finest fruit, are produced in abundance. The story of the upas, or poisonous tree, attributed to this island, is totally discredited.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR islands are situated near the entrance of the bay of Bengal, and furnish provisions, consisting of tropical fruits and other necessaries, for the ships that touch there. Of the former groupe, the largest island is about 130 miles in length and 20 in breadth. It has several good harbours; and it abounds in large trees, one of which affords oil, and another the bread-fruit. The inhabitants are a savage race, seemingly of African origin; but it does not appear that they are cannibals, as some have reported.—The island of Nicobar, peculiarly so called, is 38 miles long and 18 broad, and has a good bay on the north side. The people have Tartarian features; and though, from appearing almost naked, they have the air of barbarians, they are mild and civil in their demeanor.

CEYLON is situated in the Indian Ocean, near Cape Comorin, and is 250 miles long, and 150 broad. The natives call it the terrestrial paradise. It produces, beside excellent fruit, long pepper, the finest cinnamon, cotton, silk, ivory, ebony, musk, crystal, saltpetre, sulphur, lead, iron, copper, gold, and silver, and all kinds of precious stones, except diamonds. All sorts of fowl and fish abound here. Every part of the island is well wooded and watered; and it contains numerous herds of cattle and many other useful animals, among which tame elephants may be reckoned.

Colombo and other maritime towns in this island were formerly possessed by the Portuguese, from whom they were taken by the Dutch. The English attacked these settlements with success in the war which arose from the French revolution, and, being fully sensible of the value of the acquisitions, did not restore them at the return of peace; but, after having quietly enjoyed them for some years, they were involved in a war with the sovereign of the inland territory. They took his capital, called

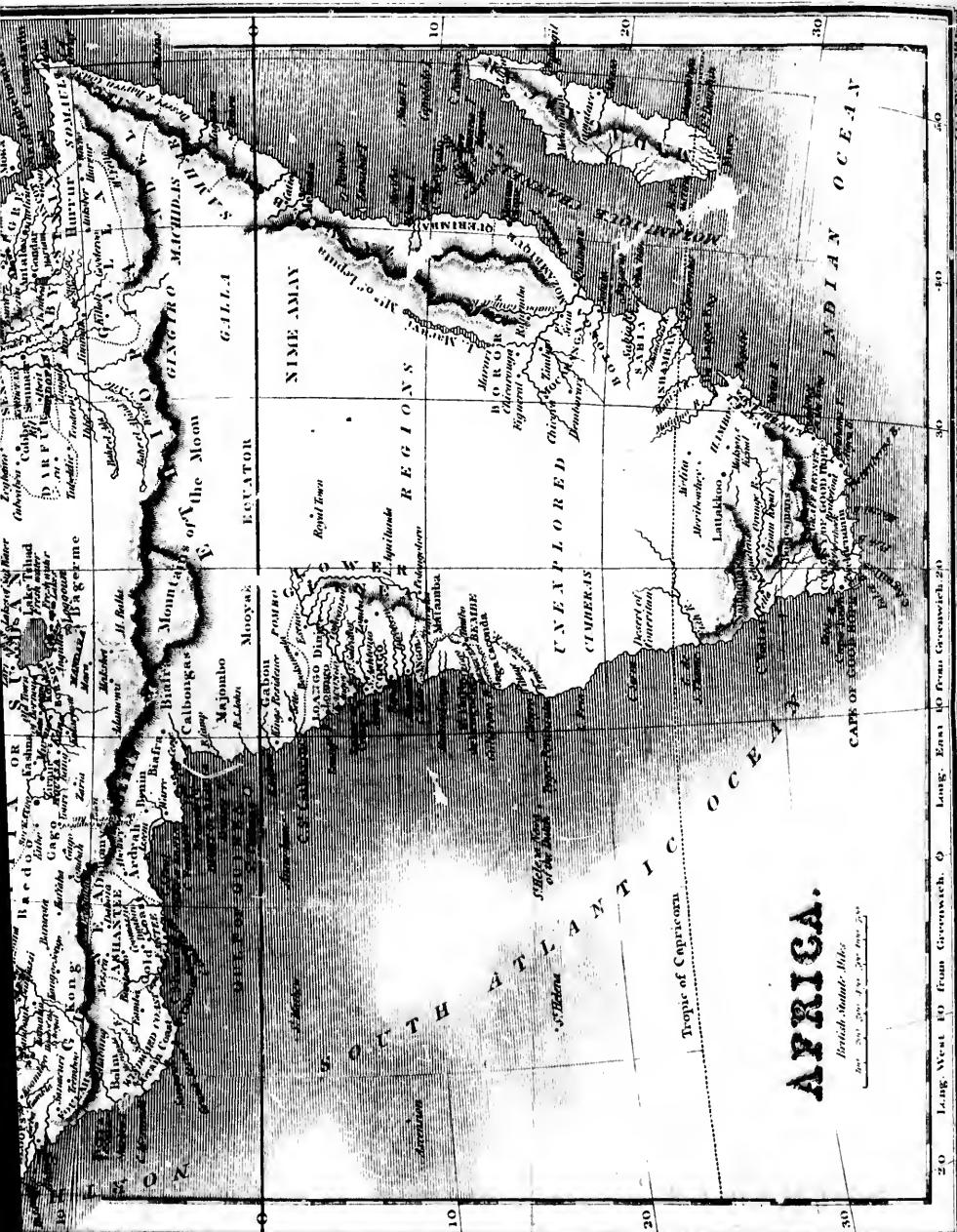
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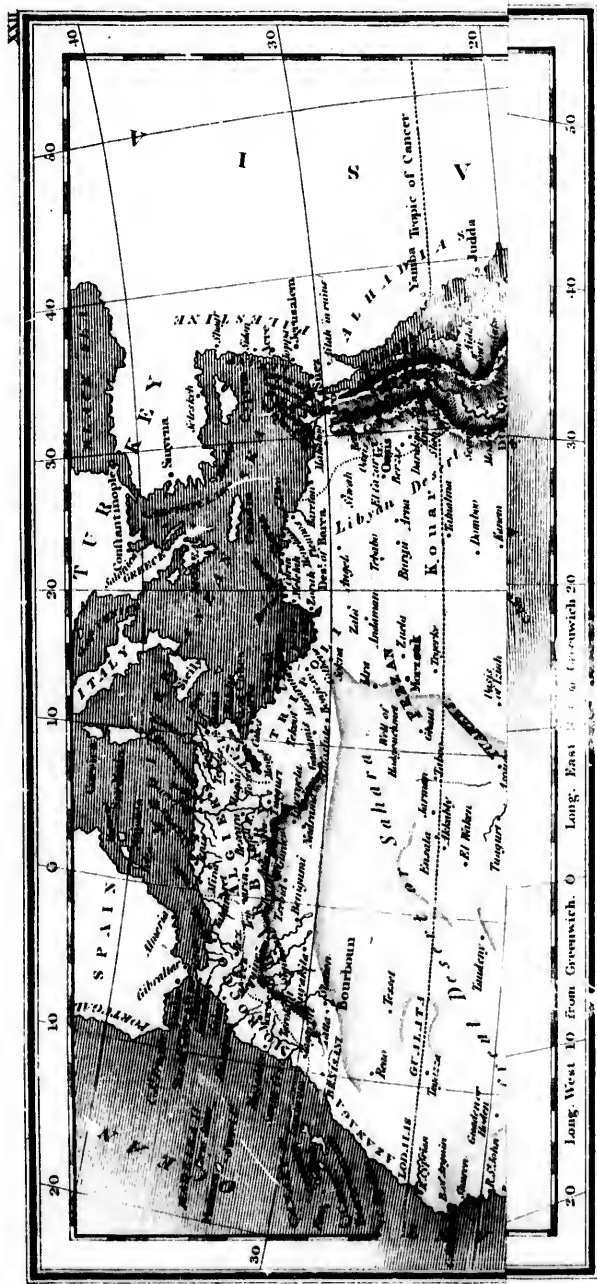


AFRICA.

British Author: Miles
New York: J. H. Colver, 1854.

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London: Published by W. Colver, for J. H. Colver, at the other Presses.



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Kandi, an ill-built town situated in a plain, amidst mountains covered with wood; and, finding him averse to an accommodation, they declared the throne vacant, and filled it at their own discretion. He renewed the war, massacred a part of the British garrison at Kandi, and invaded the colonial districts; but hostilities were soon after discontinued. After a long interval of mutual forbearance, a new rupture arose in 1815: the king was dethroned by the chiefs of his own nation; and the whole island was ceded to the British monarch. The natives are apparently of Hindoo origin; but they are less civilised than the inhabitants of the continent.

The MALDIVES are a cluster of isles, or small rocks above the water, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly resorted to by the Dutch, who carry on some trade with the natives. The cocoa tree is one of the most useful products of these islands. With its timber they build vessels of twenty or thirty tons; and the hulls, masts, sails, rigging, anchors, and cables, are all fabricated from this tree, which also provides a wholesome article of sustenance.

We have already mentioned BOMBAY 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 Malayon, Chinese, Portuguese, Dutch, and Indian words, are so frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European 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 Mohammedan, Jewish, and other 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 to the Cape of Good Hope, is 4,900 miles; and the broadest part, from Cape Verd to Cape Guardafui, near the strait of Babel-Mandeb, is 4,300 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, by which it is divided from Asia; on the south by the Southern Ocean; and on the west by the Atlantic, which separates it from America. As the equator intersects this extensive country almost in the middle, and the far greater part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many parts almost insupportable to an European; it being there increased by the rays of the sun, from vast deserts of burning sand. The coasts, however, and banks of rivers, are generally fertile; and most parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being so populous as Europe or Asia. From what has been said, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, snow seldom falls in the plains; and it is rarely 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 mountains in Africa are, the Atlas, a ridge extending from the Western Ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic, as far as Egypt; it derived its appellation from a king of Mauritania, a grec 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 Mountains of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. The last 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; the most westerly point of the continent of Africa—and the Cape of Good Hope.

The most remarkable rivers in Africa are the Nile, Niger, Senegal, Gambia, and Zair or Congo. The source of the first is not where Mr. Bruce placed it, (for he only discovered a subordinate or inferior spring,) but in a distant part of the country from his land of Geesh, as will be more particularly noticed in the sequel. It was long supposed that the Senegal and Gambia were branches of the Niger;—an opinion which has been fully disproved in our time; and it is still thought by many geographical inquirers, but without sufficient reason, that the Zair is an outlet of the Niger. In the heart of Africa, the rivers do not appear to be so numerous as they are in other extensive regions; and even those with which the country is furnished, are not so useful as with proper industry and attention they might be rendered.

The situation of Africa for commerce is exceedingly favorable, standing as it were in the centre of the globe, and thus having a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any other quarter has with the rest. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, Dutch, English, and 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 almost 10,000 miles of sea-coast, with large and deep rivers, it should have little navigation, and not receive any important benefit from them; and that it should be inhabited by an innumerable people, almost ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of these rivers are excellent harbours, sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but nearly destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandise. In short, Africa, though a very extensive portion of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable of producing so many valuable commodities within itself, is greatly neglected, not only by the natives, but also by the more civilised Europeans who are settled in it, particularly the Portuguese.

Africa formerly contained several kingdoms and states eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth, power, and 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

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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 realms 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 overrun by the Vandals, who contributed still more to the destruction of the arts and sciences; and, to add to the misfortunes of this country, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of the coasts of Egypt and Barbary, in the seventh century. These were succeeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mohammedan religion, whose professors carried desolation with them, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was nearly completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with respect to religion, may be divided into three sorts; namely, Pagans, Mohammedans, and Christians. The first are the most numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope; and these are generally black. The Moslems, 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 chiefly conduct the commercial concerns of that part of the country.

Though we are little acquainted with the boundaries, or even with the names, of many of the inland countries of Africa, that continent may be divided according to the following table.

The islands considered as belonging to Africa are situated in the Indian seas and Atlantic Ocean. The principal are the following;—Socotra, the Comoro Isles, Madagascar, Mauritius, Bourbon, St. Helena, Ascension, the Cape-Verd Islands, the Canaries, Madeira, and the Azores.

We now proceed to describe particularly the more considerable countries of Africa, as far as they are known to Europeans, from the latest accounts; beginning from the west and north.

THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head are included the countries of Morocco, Algier, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca.

The empire of Morocco is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south, by the river Noun or Akassa; on the east, by the Algerine territory; and, on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean.

The Algerine state is bounded on the east by that of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Mount Atlas, and on the west by the dominions of the Moorish emperor.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and east; by Algier on the west; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the south.

Tripoli is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south, by the country of the Berbers; on the west, by Tunis, Biledulgerid, and the districts of the Gadamis; and on the east by Egypt. In assigning these boundaries to Tripoli, we include Barca and the Cyrenaic territory.

The Barbary states form a great political confederacy, however independent each may be in the exercise of 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 Algier, and indeed of all the other states, except in the months of July and August, when the weather is very hot. 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 many other parts of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are very imperfectly cultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of the government, 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, beside plenty of roots and herbs; and excellent hemp and flax grow on the plains. Algier produces saltpetre, and great quantities of salt; and lead, iron, and copper, have been found in various parts of Barbary.

MOUNTAINS.] These form the great chain of Atlas, extending from Cape Geer to the north-east, and passing into the territory of Tunis. The most elevated parts are those which belong to the empire of Morocco, some rising to the height of 13,000 feet. From the summit to the plain, the descent presents a gradation of every climate from the frigid to the torrid zone.

ANIMALS.] The deserts have not the elephant or the rhinoceros; but they 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, some very fine ones are occasionally imported into England. Dromedaries, asses, and mules, are the ordinary beasts of burthen; but from the services of the camel the greatest advantages are derived. This useful quadruped enables the African to perform his long and toilsome journeys 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, or the barest thorn, is all the food which he requires; and even these, to save time, he eats while advancing on his journey, without stopping, or occasioning a moment's 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 able, at one watering-place, to lay in a store with which he supplies himself for many days. To contain this great quantity of fluid, nature has formed large cisterns within him, from which, once filled, he draws at pleasure the quantity he wants, and pours 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, for a whole day, carrying a prodigious load upon him, through countries infected with poisonous winds, and glowing with parched sands.

Mr. Jackson describes a kind of camel remarkable for its swiftness, known in these countries by the name of the *heirie*, of which, he says, there are three sorts, differing only in their quickness of movement. He also speaks of a useful animal, called the desert-horse, which is, he says, to the common horse what the heirie is to the camel of burthen. This animal does not, however, answer the purpose so well for crossing the desert, as he requires a feed of camel's milk once every day, which is his only sustenance, so that there must be two female camels wherever he goes, to afford this supply; for he will not touch barley, wheat (oats are never given to horses in Africa), hay, straw, or any other provision but camel's milk.

The cows are small, and barren of milk. The sheep yield indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are the goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, and camcleons, are found in these countries; and venomous insects and reptiles also abound. Partridges, quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild-fowl, are seen on this coast; and, among small birds, the capaa-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, which were preferred by the ancients to those of Europe.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] We know of few or no natural curiosities in these countries, except the hot springs and the salt-pits. The latter sometimes take the form of lakes. The pit of Tajura, in the state of Tripoli, is particularly productive. When it ceases to be a lake, there remains a bed of salt round the edge as hard as stone, which forms an article of exportation, being finer than that of Alexandria.

POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, MANNERS.] Various and contradictory statements have been made respecting the population of the empire of Morocco. Some accounts swell it nearly to fifteen millions; but

others more reasonable, reduce it to a few millions. The most populous town in the kingdom, and most celebrated for its commerce and its splendour, is Fez. It is a large city, and is the seat of the sultan's government. It is a city of mosques, and of public buildings, and is now declining, and is still to possess them, have flat roofs for shade, instead of rambling, and the spacious and airy effect. It is estimated at 300,000, not exceed 100,000.

Mequinez is another city of the empire. The town of Salee is the chief port, and is insecure, and its commerce is in the hands of English in the most good houses, except the castle wall.

The city of Algiers is the most populous, and its slaves were reckoned in the form of household groups of houses, when viewed from the mole is 500 paces long, and the English trymen inflicted

The population of the empire has not been ascertained; of Constantina it is said to be numerous; and the exhibits broken antiquity.

The Algerines are base, cruel, and rather than deviate from their manners.

TUNIS is the most populous of the empire. The Tunisians are even the most civilized of their manners. Respect is paid to the cultivate friend carried on with some in their part of the ladies and their dress.

TRIPOLI W

others more reasonably reduce it to six or seven millions. The most populous town is Fez, which was formerly the capital of a distinct kingdom, and now shares with Mequinez the honor of the imperial presence. It is deemed a sacred city, and was, in the days of its splendor, an object of frequent pilgrimages. It then abounded with stately mosques, and the handsome mansions of persons of distinction: but it is now declining, and many parts are in a ruinous state, though it is said still to possess the handsomest mosque in Africa. Most of the houses have flat roofs fenced by parapets, in which the females take the air, instead of rambling through the city. The imperial palace is not distinguished by external elegance; but the apartments are richly ornamented, and the spacious gardens are disposed and arranged with the most picturesque effect. The population of this city has been sometimes estimated at 300,000, and also at a much higher rate; but it probably does not exceed 100,000.

Mequinez is an ill-built town, with narrow streets and gloomy houses. The town of Morocco is apparently in the last stage of decay. Salee is the chief maritime town of the empire, though its harbour is insecure, and its trade inconsiderable. Tangier, which belonged to the English in the reign of Charles II., is a mean town, with scarcely any good houses, except those of the European consuls. It is still fortified; but the castle would not long resist even a small body of European besiegers.

The city of ALGIER may be supposed to contain about 85,000 inhabitants, among whom, before the late British expedition, 3000 Christian slaves were reckoned. It is built on the declivity of a mountain, rising in the form of an amphitheatre from the harbour; and the rows or groupes of houses, appearing one above another, make a fine appearance, when viewed from the sea; but the interior is mean and despicable. The mole is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a small island, which has a castle and batteries. The damage which our countrymen inflicted on the place has, we believe, been fully repaired.

The population of the whole territory subject to the dey cannot easily be ascertained; but it probably amounts to two millions. The province of Constantina is the most fertile and the best-cultivated part of his dominions; and the city of that name, supposed to be the ancient Cirta, exhibits broken pillars, cisterns, a triumphal arch, and other remains of antiquity.

The Algerines resemble the Moors in character and manners. They are base, cruel, faithless, and unprincipled; bigoted and superstitious, rather than devout or religious; servile to their rulers, but arrogant toward strangers.

TUNIS is the most polished of all the Barbary states. The capital contains about 10,000 families, 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; various manufactures are carried on with some degree of spirit; and the inhabitants are said to be well acquainted with the labors of the loom. The women are handsome in their persons; and, though the men are swarthy, the complexions of the ladies are very delicate; nor are they less neat and elegant in their dress.

TRIPOLI was once the richest, most populous and flourishing, of all

the states on the coast: but it is now much reduced. The capital is surrounded by a wall and towers; but the fortifications are not kept in such a state as to be capable of a long defence against European assailants. The town, though it is in many parts dilapidated, contains many good houses, and some fine public buildings. The castle has been so augmented, at different times, that it looks like a little irregular town. The great mosque is particularly admired; the exterior is handsome, and the interior is neatly, though fantastically ornamented. The houses of the principal inhabitants are generally built in the following manner. A hall or lodge leads to a well-paved court-yard, which is surrounded by a cloister, supported by pillars; and over this is a gallery, enclosed with lattice-work. From the cloisters and gallery, doors open into large chambers not communicating with each other, which receive light only from the court-yard. The windows have no glass, but are furnished with wooden lattices curiously cut, which, however, only transmit a very imperfect light.

The province of BARCA is fertile in the western parts, while the eastern portion is little better than a sandy desert. The city of Barca was formerly considered as its capital; but Derna, being the seat of the governor deputed by the bey or pasha of Tripoli, now claims that honor.

The CYRENAICA is, for the most part, subject to Tripoli. This country may be divided into three parts, in point of fertility. In the northern part, vegetation is rich and luxuriant; in the middle, it declines; and, in the south, the productions of the earth are poor and scanty. The inhabitants are almost entirely of Arabian descent.

The subjects of these states, as they so long subsisted by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a vessel at sea; they are, notwithstanding, far inferior to the English and other European states, both in the construction and management of their ships. They are, if we except the Tunisians, nearly destitute of 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 represented as 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 Arabian descent, that gives them an air of contentment; and, having little to lose, they are peaceable among themselves.

With regard to the dress of the people of these states, it generally consists of a linen shirt, a silk or cloth vestment with a saab, and a loose coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs are bare; but they have slippers; and persons of rank 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 variegated 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 a house consists of very low tables, cushions, sofas, carpets, and mattresses.

In this survey, some notice is due to the Berber, or the aborigines of the country, who chiefly inhabit the mountainous districts. They

are a brave, robust people, and are the only example of a despotic government, as the chiefs. They are the cause of an insurrection, are fixed villages, and who occupy the tribes, who dwell within which the supremacy of the assistance, paying dience.

MANUFACTURES almost all their among them, the ply the higher commerce; so that their trade. The valued even in Europe feathers, gold dust, olives, almonds, or a considerable whence they bring and are slaves in

In return for the artillery, gunpowder private capacities are only half of the tion, that few natives and Jews when detected, a

CONSTITUTION cannot be parties, judges, their brutality subjects bear it. In the power of life a judicial procedure from the officer resides, the cadis, who a

Though Algiers, governing the higher class to be nominated happens, every the election is of cheerfully reg Porte; but that

These prince grand signor is as he does that Subordinate to civil; and in a

are a brave, robust, and hardy race; and they exhibit (says Mr. Murray) "the only example, to be found in Barbary, of the republican form of government, as they have assemblies of the people, and elect their own chiefs." They are skilful in the use of fire-arms, and, when provoked to insurrection, are formidable enemies to the government. They live in fixed villages, and cultivate the earth; but the Bedouins, or wild Arabs, who occupy the interior and pastoral districts of Barbary, are wandering tribes, who dwell in *douars*, or moveable villages, arranged in circles, within which the cattle are enclosed. Both these races acknowledge the supremacy of the prince from whose territories they derive their subsistence, paying however an imperfect, indignant, and precarious obedience.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] As the people of Barbary 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. They have few ships which are employed in commerce; so that the English and other nations carry on the greatest part of their trade. Their leather, carpets, sashes, and silk handkerchiefs, are valued even in Europe. Their other exports are elephants' teeth, ostrich feathers, gold dust, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum arabic, and sandarach. The Moors likewise carry on a considerable trade by caravans with 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, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco, are only half of those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that few nations are fond of trading with these states, on account of their capricious despotism, and of 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, regular government cannot be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners, in all criminal matters: nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the sovereign, military commanders have the power of life and death; and it is seldom that they regard the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however, of the government borrowed from the khalifate still continue; for, in places where no military officer resides, the mufti is the fountain of all justice, and under him are the *cadis*, who act like our ordinary magistrates.

Though Algier, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each a Turkish pasha, bey, or dey, governing in the name of the grand signor, very little regard is paid by the higher class of his subjects to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, every soldier has a vote in choosing a dey or a bey; and, though the election is often attended with bloodshed, it is no sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognised and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the Porte; but that sanction is scarcely ever refused.

These princes pay small 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 despot of Morocco; but he is not implicitly obeyed. Subordinate to the chief rulers of the state are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance the dey is expected to take the

advice of a council. The members of this assembly frequently form parties among the soldiers against the reigning prince, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of these states are Mohammedans; but many subjects of Morocco are sectaries in various points which are not deemed momentous. All of them have much respect, not only for reputed saints, but even for idiots, whose protection, in some cases, screens offenders from punishment for notorious crimes. The Moors and their neighbours seem, in general, to have adopted the very worst parts of the Mohammedan system, and to retain only as much as countenances their vices; but they deserve praise for allowing to all foreigners the open profession of their religion.

LANGUAGE.] As the states of Barbary possess those countries which formerly bore the names of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is still spoken in some of the inland parts, and even by many inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the maritime towns, a bastard kind of Arabic is spoken; and seafaring people know no strangers to the medley of Italian, French, Spanish, &c. so well as the Moors, 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, possess curious remains of antiquity. Memorials of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatness are still to be met with; some striking ruins point out the Julia Cæsarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itself; and a few of the aqueducts of Carthage are still remaining. Fallen columns, ruined arches, curious pieces of sculpture, and tessellated pavements, have also been occasionally discovered in that neighbourhood.

Near Tripoli, is an arch which was erected in the time of Marcus Aurelius, said to be as handsome as any of those which still exist in Italy. It is composed of stones of extraordinary size, put together without cement; the ceiling is beautifully sculptured, and on the outside are groups of whole-length figures; but these are very much injured by time. At Zavia is an amphitheatre in a tolerable state of preservation. On the spot where Cyrene stood, the vestiges of two temples, a theatre, baths, and other ruins, are visible, but the most remarkable antiquities in this neighbourhood are nine rocky sepulchral grottoes, in one of which is a superb sarcophagus of white marble, adorned with caryatides, while others contain paintings which are still so far distinct, as to explain the subjects chosen by the artists. Some of the tombs, as well as the cells, bear a great analogy to some ruins which have been discovered on the coast of Carmania.—Among the ruins of Ptolemais are the traces of a temple, a barrack, and tombs, in the inside of one of which is some highly-finished work, and in the desert of Barca are some Saracenic castles.

HISTORY.] Under the Roman emperors, the states of Barbary formed the fairest jewels in the imperial diadem. These countries were afterward seized by the Vandal chieftains and Greek emperors, from whose sway they passed under the Saracen yoke. Several flourishing states existed for ages on the coast, which for some time acknowledged the authority of the Asiatic khalifs. Kairwan, about fifty miles to the south of Tunis, was the magnificent capital of one of these states: but it is now in ruins. At length the Turkish pirates, and other Moslem adventurers, formed principalities, extending from Egypt to the eastern frontier of Morocco.

The emperors or kings of Morocco are the successors of those sove-

reigns of that country, which included those of the great set of bloody tyrants, princes, particularly the sultans. They were frequently other Christian princes, who had the same fame of the same kind, as the sultans, has, in the case of the sultans, been informed in years past, notwithstanding the base spirit of the sultans, and the strained moderation

Miles.

Length 550

Breadth 230

BOUNDARIES.] The states of Barbary are bounded by the Red Sea, on the east; by the Mediterranean Sea, on the west; by the Arabian Sea, on the south; and by the Nile, on the north. The southern part of Africa, on the east of which Cairo is situated, which is between the Nile and the Red Sea, is anciently denominated the Great Oasis, and is now the shape of the Great Oasis, but by the Arabs *Elwah*.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Barbary are long valleys, through which flow rivers, and beyond which are the deserts, and the mountains of the Nile, and the islands in the Nile, named by which the Arabs *Elwah*. The mountains are four or five miles long, and four or five miles wide. A river flows from the mountains, but there are no gardens of rice in culture, where the farmers found here the ancient Egyptian mode of agriculture among the sculptures.

The mountains are of a volcanic nature; and the mountains of Syene, granite precipices frequent on the banks of the Nile

reigns of that country who were called sherifs, and whose powers resembled those of the khalifs. They have been, in general, and still are, a set of bloody tyrants, though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muley, who defeated Sebastian, king of Portugal. They were frequently in a state of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Christian princes; and their rovers from Salee emulated the piratical fame of the Algerines and Tripolines. That spirit of depredation has, in the case of Algier, received a severe check, as the reader has been informed in our sketch of the history of England; and for some years past, notwithstanding occasional reports of a renewal of piracy, the base spirit of outrage seems to have yielded to the feelings of constrained moderation.

EGYPT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 550 } Breadth 230 }	between { 24 and 32 North latitude. 29 and 34 East longitude. }	140,000.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] Egypt is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, on the north; by the Red Sea, to the eastward; by Abyssinia, on the south; and by the desert of Barca, and the less known parts of Africa, on the west. It is divided into the lower and upper provinces of which Cairo and Girgeh are respectively the capitals. That part which is between the branches of the Nile and the Mediterranean, was anciently denominated the *Delta*, from the resemblance of its triangular shape to the Greek letter of that name, and is still so called by Europeans, but by the Arabs Bahira.

MOUNTAINS, DESERTS, OASES.] Egypt, to the south of Cairo, is a long valley, through which the Nile flows, shut in by mountains, beyond which, on both sides, 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*. The great Oasis is said to be twenty leagues in length, and four or five in breadth. That of Siwah is about six miles long, and four 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 formerly 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.

The mountains which border the Nile, in Upper Egypt, are of a calcareous nature; but this composition ceases about sixty miles to the northward of the cataracts, and is succeeded by free-stone in beds; and, near Syene, granite is the chief component part. In the eastern chain, abrupt precipices frequently appear, resembling long walls, and approaching the banks of the river.

RIVERS.] The only river in this country is the celebrated Nile, which is formed by the junction (in the country of Sennaar) of two great streams, one of which, called the *bahr el azrek*, or the blue river, rises in Abyssinia, where its source is honored as the head of the Nile. The other river, which, as being the longest and largest stream, is the true Nile, is called the *bahr el abiad*, or the white river, and rises at a place named Donga, among the *gebels 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 1900 miles.

LAKES.] In Lower Egypt are several lakes, the largest of which is the lake of Menzaleh, 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 fifty miles long, and from two to twelve broad. The lake of Bereloh, which adjoins in like manner to the Mediterranean, between Damietta and Rosetta, is twenty-five miles long, and about eight broad. The ancient lake of Marcotis is now almost dry. The lakes in the desert ought also to be mentioned, which produce natron, a substitute for barilla.

METALS, MINERALS.] Egypt appears not to be productive of any metals, except a small quantity of iron; but the mountains contain various kinds of marble, as porphyry, the celebrated *verde antico*, or green marble, with white and dark spots, and many valuable gems, as the emerald, topaz, chalcedony, 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 to 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 comparatively 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 pernicious influence. During the three days of the southern blast, the streets are deserted; and woe to the traveler 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: but these evils are, in a great measure, remedied by the rising and overflowing of the Nile.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Whoever is in the least acquainted with geography, knows that the vast fertility of Egypt is not produced by rain (little falling in that country) but by the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to rise when the sun is vertical in Ethiopia, and when the annual rains fall there, 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, the towns and villages being, for that reason, built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee with great festivity. The banks, or mounds, which confine it, are cut by the Turkish pasha, attended by his grandees; and, after this ceremony, the water is led into what they call the *khalij*, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, whence it is distributed into cuts, for supplying the fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, such is the fertility of the soil, that the labor 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, charming than the rising corn, vegetables perfume the air; which afford the culture of papyrus, which require moisture, is reservoirs. March three crops; one of the Egyptian pasturage two at a time, and

Among the vegetables papyrus, of which preparing it is no ing in the Nile. The trees are the

The Egyptian has been practising ingenious is the When the verdure of bees put the hive. The bees with them when from their cells times loaded with their hives, with

ANIMALS.] inhabitants em grounds. They tians ride, not The Egyptian gallop with great tractable. The resembling an is found in the cameleons, and crocodile was not seem to be India and Am a lizard, and short legs, with a kind of imprey in the resembling the passenger with

This count and water-fow was deified by and pestiferous a species is s Ostriches are ride upon the POPULATION amount of

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 and lemons perfume the air; dates, grapes, and figs, cheer the eye; and palm-trees, which afford the means of making wine, are blooming and abundant. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar-canes, and other plants which require moisture, is supplied by small but regular cuts from cisterns and reservoirs. March and April are the harvest months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and of cucumbers (the latter being the ordinary 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 in a year.

Among the vegetable products of Egypt, should also be mentioned the papyrus, of which the ancients made their paper, though their mode of preparing 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 trees are the sycamore, acacia, willow, &c.

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 proceeds with them gently up the river, and stops with them where-ever 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 150,000 oxen in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, not being suffered by the Turks to mount 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 that of a horse, is found in the upper province. Hyænas, camels, antelopes, apes, cameleons, and the rat called ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. 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 some grow till they are sixteen feet in length, and have four short legs, with large feet armed with claws, and their backs covered with a kind of impenetrable scales like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the sedge, and other covers, on the sides of rivers; and, resembling the trunk of an old tree, sometimes surprises the incautious passenger with his fore-paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country also produces great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowl of all kinds. The ibis, supposed to resemble a curlew, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its utility in destroying serpents and pestiferous insects. They are thought to be peculiar to Egypt; but a species 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 them.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] It is not easy to ascertain the amount of the inhabitants of Egypt; but it is supposed that three

the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and was famous for the light house which was erected on the opposite isle of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. A great part of the ancient city, stood upon arches, under which were formed the cisterns that preserved the water of the Nile for daily use. These arches still exist, and are, in their construction, partly Greek and partly Roman. Many other remains of antiquity attract notice, particularly two beautiful obelisks, which formerly adorned the entrance to the palace of the Ptolemies, and Diocletian's (commonly called Pompey's) Pillar. There are two harbours, and on the neck of land that divides them the modern city is situated. It is encompassed by a lofty wall and other fortifications, and contains about 14,500 inhabitants, who carry on, though not very actively, some manufacturing and commercial concerns. The houses occupied by Europeans have a respectable appearance, which is not the case with the rest of the habitations. The following sketch of Alexandria is drawn by the baroness von Minutoli:—"It would be difficult to convey the impression made on me, whilst passing for the first time through the streets of this city. It would require the talent of Hogarth to depict the varied scenes of the magic lantern. The movements and tumult in these narrow streets, continually obstructed by numberless camels, mules, and asses; the cries of the drivers incessantly warning the people to take care of their bare feet; the vociferations and grimaces of mountebanks; the brilliant costume of the Turkish functionaries; the picturesque dress of the Bedouins, their long beards and grave and regular Arabian features; the half-naked santons, surrounded by anxiously gazing groupes; the multitude of negro slaves; the howl of the female weepers, who, as they accompany a corpse to the grave, tear their hair and beat their breasts; the noisy merriment of a nuptial *cortège*; the chants of the imams, calling to prayer from the minarets; and lastly, the deplorable picture of wretches dying in the streets from hunger and misery, and the troops of wild dogs that pursue and torment you; each and all of these beset your path, and excite your astonishment at every instant."

Rosetta, or Rashid, stands thirty-five miles to the north-east of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation, and delightful prospects, which command the Delta. It is also a place of great trade.

Cairo, or (as it is called by the Arabs) Kahirah, the capital of Egypt, is a large and populous but disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air and narrow streets. It cannot be supposed to contain less than 275,000 inhabitants. It is divided into two towns, the Old and New, and defended by an old castle, the works of which are one mile in circumference. The 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 270 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is still revered in Egypt, where granaries are shewn, beside other works of public utility, that are honored by his name. They are certainly of great antiquity; but it is far from being probable that they were erected by him. The houses in general are meanly constructed of earth and ill-burned bricks; but some are built of soft stone, and many are large and commodious, if not handsome or elegant. The edifices on which architectural ornament has been

chiefly bestowed, are the mosques, some of which are magnificent; and the tombs of the beys, in the suburbs, are also admired, as they are well built of white marble, and most of them have carved, painted, or gilt domes. An aqueduct near the canal which traverses the city, is a noble work: it is an hexagonal building, each side being about 80 feet in length, and nearly of an equal height: the wheels by which the water is raised are turned by the patient labor of oxen.

The police of Cairo is strict, and the streets are generally quiet; but they are occasionally enlivened by the procession of a bride to one of the baths, and by the performances of jugglers, tumblers, mountebanks, and dancing girls. Another favorite exhibition is that of dancing-camels, which, when young, are placed upon a heated floor: the intense heat makes the poor creatures caper; and, being plied all the time with the sound of a drum, they dance whenever they hear it.

Girgeh, in Upper Egypt, exhibits nothing particularly remarkable, except a large Coptic monastery, dedicated to St. George. The largest town in that province is Siout, built on the banks of a wide canal which skirts the desert. The inhabitants of this town and its environs have an appearance of opulence and industry. There are some sepulchral excavations near it, various parts of which have an air of magnificence.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Egyptians manufacture linen, prepare leather for various purposes, and make carpets; and, beside these articles, they export flax, thread, cotton, wool, yellow wax, sal ammoniac, saffron, sugar, and cassia. Cairo maintains a communication with the more inland parts of Africa by caravans, which bring gold, ivory, gums, hides, and (we are sorry to add) a great number of slaves.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] When the French invaded Egypt, the pasha, appointed by the Porte, had little more than a nominal authority; for the beys, or Mamelouk nobles, held the chief sway. They composed a divan, of which the president was chosen by the members, with the assent of the pasha. Each was arbitrary in his own territory, and exercised sovereign power; and, if the grand signor's representative acted in opposition to the sense of the beys, or attempted to violate their privileges, they would not suffer him to continue in his post. This government was subverted by the French; and, when it had been restored by British aid, the Turks took an opportunity of annihilating, by violence and outrage, the power of the Mamelouks. The Porte, however, profits little by this apparent revolution, as the pasha governs without that implicit subserviency which is usually manifested by a viceroy.

RELIGION.] The majority of the inhabitants of Egypt are votaries of the Mohammedan system; but the Copts profess themselves to be members of the Greek church, agreeing however with the Roman catholics in the doctrine of transubstantiation, and borrowing from the Moslems the custom of frequent prostrations during divine service, ablutions, and other ceremonies. While the Mohammedans have their saints, the Copts have their monks, who occupy fortified retreats in the deserts.

LITERATURE.] Though it cannot be doubted that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, few vestiges of it remain among their descendants. This may arise in some degree from the bigotry and ignorance of their Mohammedan masters; but here it is proper to make one observation. The khalifs who extended their sway over Egypt, were of three descriptions. The first made war, from conscience and principle, upon all kinds of literature, except 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

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were used for some months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The same fate attended the other Egyptian libraries. The khalifs of the second race were men of taste and learning, but of a peculiar character. They purchased all the manuscripts that survived the general conflagration, relating to astronomy, medicine, and some useless parts of philosophy; but they had little taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, or painting, or for genuine science; and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of Moslem princes, especially those who called themselves khalifs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks riveted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed. All the learning, therefore, of modern Egypt, consists in arithmetical calculations for the despatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some knowledge of the Koran.

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, when the Saracens dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabesque is now the current language; for the Coptic may be considered as nearly extinct.

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, and their original use can only be conjectured; but there is little doubt that they were sepulchral monuments. The altitude of the largest, when entire, was 448 feet; the length of the base, 716; and that of the inclined side, 574. 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, containing the mummies, or the embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; and it is said (but there are few who will believe) that some of the bodies 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 1000 chambers, the intricacies of which occasioned its name. The lake Mœris 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 grottoes and excavations, mostly artificial, abound in Egypt. Cleopatra's needle, and its sculptures, are admirable. Pompey's (or rather Diocletian'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.

The pyramids are rather monuments of labor than of skilful art: but the temple of Dendera, or Tentyra, is a striking specimen of the latter, and displays the ancient architecture of Egypt in its finest form. The portico consists of twenty-four columns, in three rows, each being thirty-two feet high, and twenty-two in circumference, and covered with hieroglyphics in alto-relievo: the capitals are square, with a representation of the face of Isis on each side. All the walls and ceilings of the interior are

profusely adorned with sculpture. Some of the delineations are religious, others astronomical; and, in one of the apartments, the figures refer to a human sacrifice. The western wall is particularly admired for its ornaments.

To the south of Dendera are the remains of Thebes, the ancient capital of Upper Egypt, the boasted "city of the hundred gates." The two great masses of Thebaic ruins are near Carnac and Luxor. At the former place, one temple is so large as to suggest the idea of sculptured mountains: that which adorns the latter village is of smaller dimensions, but is built in a much better taste. Belzoni highly admired the stupendous ruins of Carnac. He speaks with rapture of a "forest of enormous columns adorned all round with beautiful figures; gates, walls, pedestals, and architraves, decorated in every part with symbolical representations, in basso-relievo and intaglio, of battles, triumphs, feasts, and sacrifices; a sanctuary wholly formed of fine red granite; the high portals seen at a distance from the openings to this vast labyrinth of edifices, and various groups of ruins of other temples within sight." At Edfou, two temples are still seen, which are more majestic than those of Dendera, and one of which appears like a noble fortress, commanding the circumjacent country. The figures annexed to this building are of colossal magnitude, and are executed in a spirited and masterly style.

The ruins at Esneh ought not to be passed over in silence. A portico is there seen, which belongs to a temple that is concealed and inaccessible. The sculptural representations upon it are grotesque and curious, and apparently of very remote antiquity; and "their variety is such (says Mr. Hamilton) as seems to offer to posterity the amplest field for the study of the whole range of the learning, mythology, and superstitions, of the ancient Egyptians."

HISTORY.] When the princes of the line of Pharaoh had governed Egypt for a long succession of ages, the country was subdued by Cambyses the Persian. After the death of Alexander the Great, to whom, as the conqueror of Persia, it devolved, it was subjected to the sway of Ptolemy, one of his favorite officers; under whom and his successors the country flourished in commercial and general fame. In the reign of Cleopatra, it was viewed with ambitious eyes by the Romans, to whose powerful arms it submitted after a fruitless resistance. On the decline of the Roman supremacy, it became subject to the Greek emperors, from whom it was wrested, in the seventh century, by the Saracens. It passed through various Mohammedan dynasties, and was at length degraded by the despotism of the Mamelouks, or men who had risen to power from a state of slavery. The first sultans of that description were the offspring of Turks, who had been sold in Egypt by the Tartars, and who were employed as a guard by the famous Saladin and other princes. They acquired the supremacy in the year 1250, and retained it for 132 years. The next race of sultans had also a servile origin, but were of Georgian or Circassian descent. In 1517, the last prince of this dynasty was vanquished and dethroned by the Ottoman emperor, Selim I.; and, after that revolution, Egypt long remained in a state of quiet submission to the Porte: but the Mamelouk beys continued to enjoy some share of power; and they gradually encroached on the authority of the pasha, who acted in the name of the grand signor.

While the Turks were engaged in a dangerous war with the Russians, in the reign of the empress Catharine II., an attempt was made to deprive the Porte of all remains of power in Egypt, not indeed by the leading Mamelouks, but by the bey Ali, who, having embraced the Mohammedan

religion with views rendered himself having been added Constantinople; death the messenger mounted the throne laid claim to Syria to the ancient and these pretensions same time introduced system which societies; but a party in 1773 by the bey received. The bey threw the state into peace, and the country.

It was not against its mischiefs into considerable arms to attempt the conquest of the lower province where rebellions arose, the efforts of general from the country; while the beys expelled Mohammed Ali Mamelouks. On were then at Cairo against the Wahabites them when they fell, and those who fled to Salamé, about death in the capital assumed the throne to Constantinople governs with sovereignty throughout Egypt the European and

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religion with views of policy, and being a man of abilities and address, rendered himself exceedingly popular in Egypt. A false accusation having been adduced against him, his head was ordered to be sent to Constantinople; but, being apprised of his danger, he seized and put to death the messengers who brought this order, raised an army, and boldly mounted the throne of Egypt. Not content with that kingdom, 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 subdued the neighbouring provinces. He at the same time introduced a regular form of government, and pursued a system which soared above the barbarism of his Egyptian contemporaries; but a party was at length formed against him; and, being defeated in 1773 by the bey Abou-dabab, he died of the wounds which he had received. The sanguinary contest for power was prolonged, so as to throw the state into great disorder; but it gradually subsided into peace, and the beys Morad and Ibrahim became the chief rulers of the country.

It was not at first probable that the French revolution would extend its mischiefs into Africa: but, in 1798, the Parisian directory, having a considerable army at leisure, sent it, under the command of Bonaparté, to attempt the conquest of Egypt, as we stated on a former occasion. The lower province was quickly revolutionised; and, when occasional insurrections arose, they were quelled by sanguinary rigor; but, in 1801, the efforts of general Abercrombie and other commanders expelled the French from the country. The nominal authority of the Porte was now restored, while the beys exercised the chief sway. The ostensible ruler was the pasha Mohammed Ali, who at length resolved to extinguish the power of the Mamelouks. On the 22d of February, 1811, having invited all the beys who were then at Cairo to witness the ceremony of creating his son general against the Wahabia, he ordered a body of military ruffians to fire upon them when they were entangled in a narrow passage leading to the citadel, and those who escaped from the firing were decapitated. According to Salamé, about 650 Mamelouks, with almost all the beys, were put to death in the capital and in other parts of the country. The pasha then assumed the whole power of the state, merely sending an annual tribute to Constantinople to show that he was a vassal of the grand signor. He governs with some degree of ability, maintains tranquillity and order throughout Egypt, promotes commerce, and encourages the adoption of the European arts and manufactures.

ABYSSINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 700 } Breadth 500 }	between { 6 and 16 North latitude. } { 33 and 42 East longitude. }	400,000.

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] IT is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Sennaar, or Nubia; on the east by the Red Sea; on the south by Gingiro and Alaba; and on the west by Kordofan. It contains the following provinces; Masuah, Tigre, Samen, Begemder, Amhara, Walaka, Gojam, Damot, Maitsha, Dembea, Kuara, and 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 valleys and plains. About the centre of the kingdom are the mountains of Lamalnon, 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 is the largest expanse of water known in this country. Its greatest breadth is thirty-five miles, and its length 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, when all those rivers are full which are on every side of it, and fall into the lake, like *radii* drawn to a centre, it swells, and widely diffuses itself over the level country. There are about eleven inhabited islands in the lake. These were formerly used as prisons for the great, or for a voluntary retreat on account of some disgust or misfortune, or as places of security to deposit valuable effects during turbulent times.

RIVERS.] The chief river is the Nile, or the branch named the Blue River. The Tacaze is another considerable river, and there are many smaller streams.

METALS, MINERALS.] Some gold is found among the sands of the rivers, and there are mines of 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 fine emeralds.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The rainy season, it is said, continues for six months of the year, from April to September; and it is succeeded by a cloudless sky and vertical sun; but the heat of the day does not prevent the nights from being exceedingly cold. 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 sometimes 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, at last, the east side goes through the same process, toward the beginning of the rainy season.

Beside that corn which resembles the grain of Europe, the Abyssinians raise great quantities of *teff*, which thrives in every kind of soil. It consist of a stalk rising from a number of weak leaves, and from the top many branches spring, containing minute seeds or grains in capsules: these are bruised, and made into bread. They have also the *ensete*, the stalk of which is said to be palatable and nourishing. The balsam, myrrh, and other juicy and odoriferous plants, are likewise abundant; and the date-tree, the acacia, the *rack* (which supplies timber for boats) and a variety of trees equally useful, are scattered over the country.

ANIMALS.] Of the wild beasts of Abyssinia, the hyena is the most ferocious. Even the streets of the capital and other towns are infested with these animals, which, to the great annoyance and danger of the people, rush into the houses. The elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, lion, leopard, and panther, are also found in this country; and the rivers abound with crocodiles. The buffaloes are wild and mischievous, as the inhabitants do not take proper pains to render them useful. Ante-

lopes are common in many parts. The

Among the beasts are storks, snipes, &c. The only insect which buzzes in the country is the mosquito, whose sting is felt.

NATURAL HISTORY.] The great cataract of the Nile is the most magnificent sight in the world, forty feet high. It is formed by rains, and falls by an English mile. The smoke or haze of the stream, both above and below, is not seen. The water could discern, in the distance of twenty different degrees, it fell, seeming to rise as well as forward, and then ebullition.

INHABITANTS.] The people are generally tall and slender, with features are prominent noses rather high, white and hard, and docile, and

The dress of the people is cotton, tied around the waist. They have only a few articles of the same linen, which is worn by the women of the country. According to the general appearance of the men, without any ornaments, commonly substituted in their condition. Their husbands are laborious office men, which

Although we have a deal about the country, more truly than we know, unless it be the subsisting order, to be renewed. There is no such class of Abyssinians.

The Abyssinians are purified even to the end, and even to the end, tells us, that a cow before the higher part

lopes are common; the zebra is sometimes seen; and monkeys swarm in many parts. The cattle resemble those of Europe, except that the oxen in the Galla country have horns of an enormous length and magnitude.

Among the birds are eagles of a very large species, vultures, falcons, storks, snipes, pigeons, and swallows; but water-fowl are uncommon. The only insect that deserves notice is a fly, about the size of a bee, whose buzzing intimidates into flight the fiercest quadruped of the forest, and whose sting inflicts a painful wound.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Under this head may be mentioned the great cataract of the supposed Nile, at Alata, which Mr. Bruce represents as the most magnificent sight that he ever beheld. The height is about forty feet. When he saw it, 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 noise truly terrific. A thick fume or haze covered the fall all around, and hung over the course of the stream, both above and below, marking its track, though the water was not seen. The river preserved its natural clearness, and fell, as far as he could discern, into a deep pool 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, and thus raising a wave, or violent ebullition.

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 dispositions, 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 silk, ornamented, according to their rank, with jewels, trinkets, and images. 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 in general 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, 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 the 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, in any class of Abyssinian society.

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 saw some men 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. He represents this brutal mode of gratifying the appetite as a common and favorite practice; and Mr. Salt's statement does not fully invalidate the report; for, though he says that the animal is previously killed, and not suffered to live in a mangled condition for future feasts, he admits that the raw flesh is greedily devoured, while the fibres are quivering with the remains of life.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Gondar, the metropolis of Abyssinia, is situated upon a hill of considerable height; and the population consists of about ten thousand families in time of peace. The houses are chiefly of clay, and the roofs are thatched in the form of a cone, which is the usual construction within the tropical rains. On the west of the town is the king's house, which was a square building flanked with square towers: a great part of it is now in ruins, having been burned at different times; but there is still ample lodging in the lower part, the audience-chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long. The palace and 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.

Axum was formerly the capital of Abyssinia, and its ruins are now very extensive. In a square, which seems to have been the centre of the town, there are forty obelisks, without hieroglyphics. One piece of granite composes each of them; and, on the top of that which is standing, there is a *patera*, exceedingly well carved, in the Greek taste.

Adowa, the chief town of the province of Tigre, contains about 800 ill-built houses, divided between Christians and Mohammedans. The brisk trade of the place is chiefly carried on by the latter. A considerable manufacture of cotton, and other branches of art, give to this city a superiority over most of the Abyssinian towns. Masuah, near the Red Sea, is also a commercial town; and among its exports slaves are particularly mentioned.

GOVERNMENT AND ARMY.] 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 crown is hereditary in the pretended race of Solomon, but elective as to the individual. 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 has fallen into disuse.

The military force of this country has been greatly exaggerated. The household troops are about 8000 infantry; and the whole royal force does not exceed 35,000. The common men are wretchedly clad, and poorly accoutred. The majority, it is said, have no other weapon than a spear.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of Abyssinia chiefly consist of Christians; but about one-third is composed of Mohammedans: there are also many Jews; and the Gallas are pagans. 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 labors of Frumentius in the year 333, who introduced among the people the religion of the Greek church. They receive the holy sacrament in both kinds; and they also

practise circumcitan, styled *Abudna*, residing at

LITERATURE] very uninformed of their government course they have

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practise circumcision. The church is governed by a bishop or metropolitan, styled *Abuna* (our father), sent 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 enlightened nations.

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 Tigre, however, approaches nearest to the old Ethiopic, which has a considerable affinity to the Arabic, and is called *leshone geez*, or the learned language, and is still used not only in religious and other books, but also in public instruments and records.

HISTORY.] It is generally supposed, that Abyssinia was originally colonised by the descendants of Cush, the eldest son of Ham; and it is said, that, when some generations had lived in caves, the increase of civilisation prompted their posterity, in the days of Abraham, to build the city of Axum. The next colonists are called *shepherds*; but, with regard to these or the former possessors of the country, we have no satisfactory information. There is reason to believe that a kingdom was formed in Abyssinia at a very early period; but we may easily conclude, that the people remained for many ages in a state of barbarism and ignorance, from which, indeed, at the present day, they can scarcely be said to have emerged. It is stated, on the foundation of that slender authority which is derived from the pretended Abyssinian records, that Menilek, son of the queen of Sheba or Saba, whose visit to Solomon is a memorable scriptural incident, was contemporary with Sesae or Sesostris, the ambitious and powerful king of Egypt, by whom a considerable part of the realm was subdued. The disgraceful yoke, however, was shaken off by one of the subsequent princes; and even the Romans, in the meridian of their power, made little impression upon the Abyssinian territories. After the introduction of Christianity among the people, they became in some degree more civilised, according to the usual influence of that religion; but it had not its full effect upon minds which were unprepared for its reception. In the mean time, the political independence of the realm continued, without any extraordinary respectability of moral character, either in the higher or lower classes.

After a series of obscure reigns, we hear of an expedition of the Abyssinians, connected with what the Arabian historians call the War of the Elephant. It is affirmed, that an army invaded Arabia, under the conduct of Abreha, who was mounted on a white elephant; that Mecca was besieged, on account of the rivalry between the pagan temple in that city and a religious structure founded by the Abyssinian king; and that the invaders suffered a disastrous defeat, which was followed by the loss of all the Arabian territories dependent upon their kingdom. But they compensated this loss by successive acquisitions in Africa, so as to attain a very considerable extent of dominion. The population of Abyssinia was occasionally augmented by the intolerant spirit of the Saracens, who, by harassing the Christians in Egypt, drove a great number into exile. A multitude of Jews, for the same reason, also settled in the kingdom. Some respectable princes arose at different times; and the government was sometimes disgraced by men of a different character. Amda Sion, who began to reign in 1312, was a brave and warlike prince; but that character alone never yet rendered a man estimable,

Zarah Jacob, who was contemporary with our Henry VI., was regarded by his admiring subjects as a second Solomon, and his conduct was deemed a model for kings: but, says Mr. Bruce, he was not justly entitled to that high encomium; for he was so illiberal and inhuman, as to be the first prince who introduced religious persecution into the Abyssinian government: yet it ought to be added, that he at length checked himself in his career of injustice. In a subsequent reign, the Portuguese introduced themselves to the knowledge of the king, being desirous of inquiring into the means of instituting a commercial intercourse with the East-Indies, and of ascertaining the supposed identity of *Prester* (or *Presbyter*) *John* with the Abyssinian prince. That pontifical character rather belonged to the grand lama of Tibet than to any African potentate; but, when the error was discovered, it did not prevent the formation of an alliance between the princes, though the Portuguese in vain endeavoured to convert the Abyssinians from the system of the Greek church to catholicism. Religious dissensions arise from this source, as both persuasions were supported by powerful parties: but these disputes were less injurious to the royal authority, than the ambition of provincial governors, or the wild ferocity of the Gallas and other rude tribes, which frequently convulsed the kingdom with civil war. Even in our times, that has been the occasional state of affairs. An able prince restores the public tranquillity; but it is again disturbed, when a feeble ruler slumbers on the throne. The lawful king is master only of a part of the realm, while various chieftains domineer over the rest.

NUBIA has been sometimes considered as a part of the Abyssinian empire: but, if it be not an independent state, it certainly is less molested by the hostilities or the claims of the Abyssinian king, than by those of the Egyptian government. Dongola, the capital, is a large and pleasant town, though ill-built. A king of Dongola is mentioned, by Mr. Waddington, who also speaks of Tombol, the king of Nubia, and says that he was introduced to both those princes. The latter is guarded by half-naked barbarians, and is scarcely more enlightened than the lowest of his people. His habitation is either a mud-fortress, or a hut constructed of straw and the stem and branches of the palm-tree. The men in general are ill-clad, and the majority of the women are content with a wrapper about the waist. The people of the north have olive complexions, expressive features, and short curled black hair, not woolly; while those of the south approach more nearly to the negro aspect. Their characters are not very estimable, and little dependence can be placed on their honor or humanity.

The valley which is intersected by the Nile, continues, after passing the southern boundary of Egypt, to be confined on one side by sandy declivities, and on the other by precipices of granite, for many miles; but it afterwards widens, and not only exhibits pleasing traces of cultivation, but curious vestiges of antiquity. At Oufeddouni and Taifa, captain Light discovered the remains of some Christian churches on the primitive model. At the former place he found a Nubian chief; but the country, in his opinion, displayed few traces of law or government. He did not proceed so far as Mr. Waddington, who, soon after he had reached Ethiopian ground untrudden by modern footsteps, arrived at the Pass of the Water's Mouth, where he was astonished at the grandeur and delighted with the variety of the scenery, and in his progress discovered two temples and many pyramids, at El-Berkel and Bellal, which he considered as more ancient than those of Egypt. In one of the former buildings,

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some granite pedestals were exceedingly well sculptured, and, in the chambers of the other temple, the walls were curiously ornamented.

In the southern division of Nubia is the territory of Sennaar, in which a Moslem chief has considerable sway, though his authority is disputed and opposed. The town of that name is very populous; the houses are formed of clay, and (except those of the great officers of state) have only one story. The soil of the adjacent country is exceedingly fertile in corn and other produce; but Mr. Bruce says, that the unctuous fatness of the earth is peculiarly unfavorable to the propagation of animals, who can only thrive or be reared on the neighbouring sands. He allows, however, that the Nubians have an excellent breed of horses.

INTERIOR COUNTRIES OF AFRICA.

AS it had long been a subject of regret, that Europeans had a very imperfect knowledge of the interior of Africa, a number of learned and opulent individuals formed themselves into a society for the encouragement of progressive discovery. The association was formed in the year 1788; and a committee of its members soon made choice of two persons, who seemed to be eminently qualified for making the proposed researches. One was Mr. Ledyard; the other, Mr. Lucas.

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. When he reached Grand Cairo, he transmitted such accounts to his employers as manifested him to be one who observed, reflected, and compared; and such was the information which he collected in that city from the 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 Sennaar; but death arrested him at the commencement of his researches.

Mr. Lucas embarked for Tripoli, with instructions to proceed over the desert to Fezzan; but instructions for great enterprises are more easily given than executed; and only a small part of the plan was this geographical missionary able to carry into execution. He set out, indeed, in 1789, with some native guides, and the party proceeded in a southerly direction; but an alarm suddenly arose on the fifth day of the journey, and the reported proximity of a band of roving Arabs checked the progress of the adventurers, who, abruptly returning, contented themselves with reporting the intelligence which they procured from others, respecting Fezzan and the more southern countries.

Horneman, a German adventurer, more persevering than Lucas, found an opportunity of visiting FEZZAN, in company with a party of traders from Egypt. The people, he says, are of an ordinary stature; their complexions are of a deep brown; their hair black and short, and their noses less flat than those of negroes. Their limbs are far from being muscular; and 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*. Persons of the mid-

dle class wear frocks of dyed blue cloth. The richer people, and the Mamelouks of the sultan, are clothed in the Tripoline habit; over which they wear a Soudan shirt of variegated pattern and colors, and likewise the *abbe*. The ornamental distinctions of dress are chiefly confined to the head-dress, and to rings on the arms and legs. Women of a higher class 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, hanging on each side toward the shoulder. The meaner females 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 generally have a great fondness for dancing; and the wanton manners and public freedoms in which, although Mohammedans, they are permitted to indulge, astonish the Moslem traveler. The men are much addicted to drunkenness. Their beverage is the fresh juice of the date-tree, or an intoxicating drink prepared from dates.

The commerce of Fezzan is considerable, as Mourzouk (its capital) is a *depôt* for the productions and commodities of Egypt, Tripoli, Bornou, and Soudan. The houses in that town are constructed of clay, and have flat roofs, formed of the boughs of trees (the date and the palm), over which earth is spread. The people boast of the number of walled towns in their country, elevating the amount to 109. Traghan, formerly the capital of a prince who governed the eastern part of Fezzan, is famous for the manufacture of carpets, which are said to be nearly equal to those of Constantinople.

Fezzan is governed by a sultan descended from the family of the sherifs. His power, over his own dominions, is unlimited; but he holds them under a tribute to the pasha of Tripoli. The throne is hereditary; but the crown does not, in all cases, descend directly from father to son: the eldest prince of the royal family succeeds, perhaps a nephew in preference to a son who is younger. This custom frequently occasions contest and bloodshed. The sultan's palace is situated within the castle of Mourzouk, where he lives retired with no other inmates than the eunuchs who wait on him. His haram, occupied by a sultana and about forty slaves, is contiguous; he never enters it; but the female whom he at any time wishes to see is conducted to his apartment. On days of state and ceremony, his apparel consists of a large white frock or shirt of stuff, brocaded with silver and gold, or of satin, interwoven with silver. Under this frock he wears the ordinary dress of the Tripolines; but the most remarkable appearance is that of his turban, which from the fore to the hinder part extends a full yard, and is not less than two-thirds of a yard in breadth. His revenues arise from a tax on cultivated lands, duties on foreign trade paid by the caravans, from royal domains, and predatory expeditions.

To the south and west of Fezzan, the TUAREK tribes are dispersed over an immense space. They profess the Mohammedan religion, but are not bigoted or intolerant. They are chiefly of an erratic description, and evince a free independent spirit. They are stouter than the wild Arabs, and have fairer complexions than the Fezzanese; and the women, in particular, are lively and animated in their manners and behaviour.

The travels of Mr. Mungo Park, in 1796, opened various countries to the knowledge of Europeans. Having passed through the territory of Wouli, which, he observed, was diversified with hills, dales, and woods, and cultivated beyond his expectations, he reached the kingdom of

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BONDou, inhabited by tribes of the Foulah race. This country appeared to him to be remarkably fertile, and the people pleased him by their mildness and civility. But major Gray, who lately visited Bondou, has given a better account of the region and its inhabitants than Mr. Park was enabled to communicate; and he says, "The face of the country is in general mountainous, but particularly so in the northern and eastern parts. Those mountains which are chiefly composed of rock, are small, and for the most part thinly covered with low stunted wood. The valleys, wherein are situated the towns and villages, are for the most part cleared for the purpose of cultivation, to which the soil, being a light sand mixed with brown vegetable mould, seems well adapted. Innumerable beds of torrents intersect these valleys in all directions, and serve during the rains, being dry at all other times, to conduct the water collected by the high grounds to the Faleme and Senegal. Great numbers of tamarinds and baobabs, and of the rhamnus, lotos, and other fruit-trees, are beautifully scattered over these valleys, which are rendered still more picturesque by the frequent appearance of a village or walled town, in whose vicinity are always a number of cotton and indigo plantations."

"The people of Bondou (says the major) are of the middle size, well made, and very active; their skin is of a light copper color, and their faces are of a tawny color approaching nearer to those of Europe than any of the other tribes of western Africa, the Moors excepted. Their hair too is not so short or woolly as that of the black, and their eyes are, with the advantage of being larger and rounder, of a better color and more expressive. The women in particular, who, without the assistance of art, might vie, in point of figure, with those of the most exquisitely fine forms in Europe, are of a more lively disposition and more delicate form of face, than either the Serrawollies, Mandingoes, or Joloffs. They are extremely neat in their persons and dress, and are very fond of amber, coral, and glass-beads, of different colors, with which they profusely adorn their heads, necks, wrists, and ancles; gold and silver, too, are often formed into small buttons, which are intermixed with the former on the head, and into rings and chains worn on the wrists and ancles. They always wear a veil thrown loosely over the head: this is manufactured by themselves from cotton, and is intended to imitate thin muslin, at which they have not by any means made a bad attempt. The other parts of the dress, with few exceptions of silk and printed cotton which they obtain from the coast, are entirely of their own manufacture."

In the territory of KAYAAGA, according to Mr. Park, the air and climate are more pure and salubrious than at any of the settlements near the coast: the country exhibits a pleasing variety of hills and valleys, and the windings of the Senegal, which descends from the rocky hills of the interior, make the scenery on its banks very picturesque. The inhabitants are attached to commerce, and their government is a despotic monarchy.

In the kingdom of KASSON, the number of towns and villages, and the extensive cultivation around them, surpassed every thing which Mr. Park had previously seen in Africa. A gross calculation might be formed of the number of inhabitants in this delightful plain, from the fact, that the king of Kasson could raise four thousand fighting men by the sound of his war-drum.

At Kemmoo, the capital of KAARTA, he had an audience of the king, who advised him to return to Kasson, telling him that it was not in his power to afford him much assistance, as all kind of communication between Kaarta and Bambarra had been interrupted by a war. He resolved, however, to continue his journey; and, in his progress, he sent presents to

Ali, king of LUDAMAR, 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; but, before he arrived there, he was seized by a party of Moors, who conveyed him to Benoum. The king detained him a prisoner more than three months; but he found means to make his escape, in the confusion which ensued in consequence of the success 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 traveling 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, resumed its functions: he continued his peregrinations, and at length beheld the 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." Having settled that long-disputed point, he proceeded to 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. Beside 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 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 a prospect of civilization and magnificence which I little expected to find in the bosom of Africa."

But, when he had advanced to Silla, his progress was unfortunately stopped by the tropical rains, the low state of his finances, and other difficulties; and he terminated his travels to the eastward, "at a point (says major Rennell) 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, Timbuctoo, was far beyond what any other European was known to have reached."

A second journey of exploration was undertaken by Mr. Park in 1805, at the request of the British ministry. With a party of soldiers from the garrison of Goree, and a few artificers, he again directed his adventurous course to the eastward, passed through the sylvan wilderness of Tenda, crossed the Falemo, reached the gold pits of Dindikoo, and beheld with delight the villages romantically built in the mountainous glens of Konkodoo: but, when he approached the Niger, his prospect was gloomy and ominous. Of thirty-eight men who had accompanied him, many had fallen victims to fatigue and indisposition; others were unable to proceed; and he was almost deserted when he arrived at Saandian, whence he intended to pass down the river, imagining that it

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might lead him into the kingdom of Congo. He commenced his hazardous voyage, but, as we believe, perished in his progress.

In an Arabic document, it is stated that some Christians arrived at Youri in the kingdom of Yaour, and afterwards reached Boussa, where their vessel struck upon a rock, and all perished. Another account states, that they were attacked by the natives when they were thus endangered, and forcibly drowned. If either of these statements be true, Mr. Park and his companions may have been the unfortunate sufferers.

Of the far-famed city of Timbuctoo, the object of anxious research, we would gladly give a detailed account, if we could depend upon the authorities by which it is ostensibly supported. Loose and vague statements have been given with an affectation of accuracy; and the zealous advocates of discovery have listened to every idle and improbable tale. Mr. Park and Mr. Jackson gratified the eagerness of inquiry with plausible accounts of the town and its dependencies, founded on hearsay testimony; but, as the latter gentleman gave credit to the absurd rhodomontade of the Jennè negroes, who mentioned the existence of 1200 cities and towns on or near the banks of the Nile, between Timbuctoo and Cairo, we cannot refrain from observing, that his credulity is greater than his penetration or judgement.

It appears, from Leo Africanus, that, in the year 1215, a kingdom was founded at Timbuctoo by a Moorish chief; that some of its rulers were warlike princes, and extended their frontiers in all directions; that they had a splendid court, encouraged commerce, and made their country flourish. When the Portuguese were prosecuting their career of African discovery, they received pompous accounts of the kingdom, but were never tempted to ascertain, by ocular evidence, the authenticity of the reports. Other visitants of the coast were equally negligent of the interior; and Timbuctoo continues to be known to Europeans only by name; but, from the increasing eagerness for its discovery, it is probable that it will not much longer elude research.

Before either of Mr. Park's journeys excited public curiosity, a considerable kingdom was discovered by Mr. Browne. From Egypt he went with the traders to the south-west, in 1793, and reached DAR-FOUR. The dimensions of this country cannot be precisely stated; but its situation is between Kordofan and Bergou, to the west of Abyssinia. It is in many parts covered with wood. During the dry season, the appearance of the land is sterile; but the rains which fall here for three months from the middle of June, in greater or less quantity, suddenly invest the face of the country with a delightful verdure. The tame animals are camels, horses, sheep, oxen, and dogs; the wild ones, lions, leopards, hyenas, wolves, jackals, and elephants, which, in the places they frequent, go, according to report, in large herds of four or five hundred. The population of the country Mr. Browne estimated at 200,000 souls: Cobbé, the capital, he thought, did not contain more than 6000 inhabitants. This town is more than two miles in length, but very narrow; and the houses, each of which occupies within its enclosure a large portion of ground, are divided by considerable wastes. The walls of the houses are of clay, and the people of higher rank cover them with a kind of plaster, and color them white, red, and black. The disposition of the people 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 their gaiety is attended with dishonesty; and the vices of lying, cheating in bargains, and pilfering, are here almost universal. No property, whether considerable or trifling, is safe out of the owner's

sight. The people are also very licentious in sexual intercourse. Polygamy is freely practised, as no limitation checks it; and matrimonial infidelity is not deemed criminal or disgraceful. But, though the women are objects of love and regard, they are not particularly favored in other respects. To them are assigned the most laborious employments: they till the ground, gather corn, make bread, and even build 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 camels and cattle; and some other duties: he is also the chief merchant in the country, and despatches with every caravan a great quantity of his own commodities.

The misfortunes of Mr. Park and his companions did not deter the ministry from farther attempts for the exploration of Africa. Captain Tuckey, an officer of great merit, undertook the task of ascending the Zair or Congo river, in the hope of meeting another party, which, under the conduct of major Peddie, would follow the course of the Niger. When the captain and his associates had reached Shark-Point, they were molested with visitants from Einbomma, who intimated the readiness of the chief to forward their enterprise; but this was a mere compliment, as it did not appear that he had sufficient sense to comprehend the nature of a scientific expedition; for he thought that strangers could only come to make war, or for the purpose of trading. While the party remained in this neighbourhood, it was observed that the chief objects of culture were maize, beans, and tobacco; that sugar-canes were not wholly neglected, and salt was an article of trade; that the cotton plant grew wild; that the only native fermented liquor was afforded by the palm-tree; and that agricultural labors were performed entirely by females. Beyond Noki, the navigation was so obstructed by whirlpools and ledges of rocks, that the boats could not proceed; and the rugged nature of the country prevented the party from dragging them by land to a place where the river might again become navigable. Marching over steep hills, and through deep ravines, the fatigued and unaccommodated strangers reached a point at which the river seemed to be free from obstruction; and, having procured two canoes, embarked with renovated confidence. But illness soon diffused its appalling ravages: some of the captain's chief assistants were sent down the river in a very invalid state; and, the party being reduced to a wreck, no hope of success remained. This disappointment hastened the death of the unfortunate leader, who declined into a state of debility, and at length expired from mere exhaustion. Major Peddie's expedition was likewise disastrous. When he had arrived at Kakundi, a fever put an end to his life; and captain Campbell, who succeeded him in the direction of the enterprise, advanced to the eastward, until he was stopped by a Foulah chief, under the pretence of a war in the interior; and he died soon after his return to the coast.

Captain Lyon did not even reach the extremity of Fezzan; but Horne- man proceeded as far to the southward as the tenth degree of northern latitude: yet, as his progress to that extent (though undoubted) has not been specifically described, all the credit of the recent information is due to major Denham and captain Clapperton, who reached Musfeia, which is situated about nine degrees to the northward of the equator. They passed from Tripoli, through Fezzan and a sandy desert, to the Tinnoo territory, and were met near Bilna (the capital) by the sultan, about fifty spear-men,

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and a hundred women, who amused themselves and the strangers by singing and dancing. The town stands in a hollow, and is surrounded by low walls of mud; the inhabitants are poorly lodged, and scantily furnished with the necessaries of life, though they carry on a trade in salt, which they find in the neighbouring lakes. They are well-made, but not tall; have sharp copper-colored faces, large eyes, and flat noses; they are lively and active, but not so bold or courageous as the Tuareks or the Arabs.

Arriving in the Kanem territory, a province of the empire of Bornou, the strangers rested at a town consisting of circular rush-built huts, in the best of which are two apartments, divided by mat-work for each sex. For a long time they had not been accustomed to the sight of trees; but they now found themselves in a well-wooded country. At length they reached Kouka, where the emperor, who is styled the Sleik of Spears, then resided. To this prince they were introduced in form, and honored with a favorable reception.

BORNOU is comprehended between the tenth and fifteenth degrees of northern latitude, and the twelfth and eighteenth of eastern longitude. To the eastward it is bounded by the Lake Tchad, which covers several thousand miles of country, and contains many inhabited islands. From March to the end of June, the heat of the climate is excessive, the thermometer frequently rising to 107 degrees, except a few hours before daylight, when it sinks to 86. In May there are violent tempests, and the lightning is particularly mischievous. In July, almost continual rains occur, and the lakes and rivers overflow to a great extent. The winter, which is the most agreeable season, commences in October, and the cool breezes then restore health and strength to the people, who suffer severely during the damp weather from fevers and agues, which carry off great numbers in every year.

As the Bornouese are not very industrious, they do not sufficiently profit by that fertility which their soil possesses in many parts of the country. Yet they raise some wheat, barley, maize, rice, a great quantity of millet (the chief food of the common people), and four species of beans. The only implement of husbandry which they use, is an ill-shaped hoe, made from the iron found in the mountains of Mandara; and the labors of their wretched agriculture devolve almost entirely on the women. Most of their grain is reaped within two or three months of its being scattered on the earth; for the operation can scarcely be called sowing. Cotton and indigo grow wild; and the latter is of a superior quality. Fruit-trees are very scarce, and their produce is far from being excellent. The people attend more to the rearing of cattle than to agriculture. The beasts of burthen chiefly used are the ox and the ass. Only persons of opulence and distinction have camels in their possession.—“The game” (says the major) “is abundant, and consists of antelopes, gazelles, hares, an animal about the size of a red deer, with annulated horns, called *koorigum*, partridges very large, small grouse, wild ducks, geese, snipes, and the ostrich, the flesh of which is much esteemed. Pelicans, spoonbills, the Balearic crane, in great numbers, with a variety of other large birds of the crane species, are also found in the marshes. The woods abound with the Guinea fowl. The wild animals are, the lion, which in the wet season approaches the walls of the towns, panthers, and a species of tiger-cat in great numbers in the neighbourhood of Mandara, the leopard, the hyena, the jackal, the civet cat, the fox, hosts of monkeys, black, gray, and brown, and the elephant; the last so numerous as to be seen near the Tchad in herds of from fifty to four hundred. This noble animal

they hunt, and kill for the sake of his flesh; as well as the ivory of his tusk. The buffalo, the flesh of which is a delicacy, has a high game flavor. The crocodile and the hippopotamus are also numerous, and the flesh of both is eaten. That of the crocodile is extremely fine: it has a green firm fat, resembling the turtle, and the callipee has the color, firmness, and flavor of the finest veal. The giraffe is seen and killed by the buffalo hunters in the woods and marshy grounds near the Tchad. The insects and reptiles consist of scorpions, centipedes, and disgusting large toads, serpents of several kinds, and a snake said to be harmless, of the Congo kind, sometimes measuring fourteen feet in length."

Many of the towns are surrounded by thick walls; and the houses of the higher class (says major Denham), more particularly at Kouka, have several court-yards, about which are rooms for slaves: they have also an interior court, leading to the habitations of the different wives, who have, respectively, a square walled space and a thatched hut. Thence a staircase leads to the apartments of the gentleman himself, which consist of two buildings like turrets, with a terrace of communication between them affording a view into the street from a castellated window. The walls are made of reddish clay, as smooth as stucco, and the roofs are tastefully arched with branches, and thatched with a species of grass. The horns of the antelope serve as substitutes for nails or pegs, and on them are hung quivers, bows, spears, and shields. Huts of mud, straw, and matting, without chimneys or windows, are the wretched lodgings of the people in general. They sleep on mats, or on rushes, and they cover their beds, which are sometimes elevated on six or more poles or posts, with the skins of various animals. Their most common utensils are well-made earthen pots and wooden bowls: they drink water (their only beverage) out of a large gourd. They have no coin in use, their circulating medium being strips of cotton. Of conversation they are so fond, that they meet in the evening either in the court-yard of some great house, or under the shade of mats in the open places of the town, where prayers are said at certain hours by the imam. Among their amusements they have a game resembling chess, which they play with beans, making twelve holes in the sand for that purpose. The Arabs have a game similar to this; but they are far from being such skilful players as the Bornouese.

The people of Bornou (properly so called, as the empire contains several subject nations) have large unmeaning faces, with the usual Negro nose, mouths of great dimensions, good teeth, and high foreheads. They are in general peaceable (says the major), quiet, and civil; "they salute each other with courteousness and warmth; and there is a remarkable good-natured heaviness about them which is interesting." He adds, that they are extremely timid, and no warriors; yet it appears that the sheik has profited in no small degree by their military services.

The women are almost as ugly as the men; and their custom of tattooing does not increase their attractions in the eyes of strangers; for they have twenty cuts or lines on each side of the face, one on the forehead, six on each of their arms, legs and thighs, four on each breast, and nine on each hip; nor do they dress their hair in a becoming manner; for it is brought over the top of the head in three or more thick rolls, covered with bees'-wax and tinged with indigo—a dye which they also use for their eye-brows, hands, arms, feet, and legs, while they give the red tint of henna to their nails and their palms. Though their appearance is not handsome or elegant, they have two good qualities: they are "particularly cleanly," and also the "most humble of females, never approaching their husbands except on their knees, or speaking to any of the male sex, other-

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wise than kneeling with the head and face covered; and, when summoned to the matrimonial bed, they invariably enter at the foot." Such modest and obedient women, we may suppose, do not often deviate into adultery. From that species of criminality they are indeed strongly deterred by the rigors of capital punishment; and unmarried women of loose characters are also sometimes hanged or strangled by the rigid inhumanity of the arbitrary sheik.

The Bornoese, even of the higher class, rarely have more than two or three wives at a time; and they divorce these at their pleasure, on returning the dowry which they received. Persons of inferior rank are, in general, content with one wife. Before marriage, both the bridegroom and the bride name an arbitrator who, in case of subsequent disagreement, sees justice done to the aggrieved individual. The matrimonial portion, among the rich, partly consists of slaves; and it is remarkable that, when the sheik espoused the daughter of a neighbouring prince, the dowry was fixed at the produce of an expedition which was to be undertaken by the forces of the allied barbarians; and the result was, that about 3000 wretches were dragged from their homes by the ruffian marauders, and sold as slaves.

The usual dress of a Bornoese man consists of one, two, or three *tobes*, or garments resembling shirts, according to the means of the wearer; and the women appear in a cotton or linen turkadî or wrapper, drawn tightly round the body, and reaching from the bosom to the knees or lower down: when a second is worn, it is flung over the head and shoulders. A man of rank wears a cap, while the generality of the people go about bare-headed. The men keep the head free from hair, while the women encourage its growth. Both sexes wear sandals, some of leather, others of the undressed hide.

There is no regular code of law in the empire; and much depends on the will of the sovereign. All who are guilty of murder are (as they unquestionably ought to be) put to death; but thieves, even if their depredations should be frequent and considerable, are not so severely punished as in Great-Britain, where, without regard either to good sense or to humanity, one who robs another to a certain and even a small amount is dismissed from the world by the remorseless vengeance of the law.—“Repeated thefts (says Mr. Denham) are punished by the loss of a hand, or by burying the young Spartan, if he be a beginner, with only his head above ground, well buttered or honeyed, and so exposing him, for twelve or eighteen hours, to the torture of a burning sun, and innumerable flies and mosquitoes, who all feast on him undisturbed. These punishments are, however, often commuted for others of a more lenient kind. Even the judge himself has a strong fellow-feeling for a culprit of this description. When a man refuses to pay his debts, and has the means, on a creditor pushing his claims, the *cadi* takes possession of the debtor's property, pays the demand, and takes a handsome centage for his trouble. It is necessary, however, that the debtor should give his consent; but this is not long withheld, as he is pinioned and laid on his back until it is given; for all which trouble and restiveness, he pays handsomely to the *cadi*: and they seldom find that a man gets into a scrape of this kind twice. On the other hand, should a man be in debt, and unable to pay, on clearly proving his poverty, he is at liberty. The judge then says, ‘God send you the means;’—the bystanders say, ‘Amen:’ and the insolvent has full liberty to trade where he pleases. But if, at any future time, his creditors catch him with even two *tobes* on, or a red cap, on taking him before the *cadi*, all superfluous habiliments are stripped off, and given towards the payment of his debts.”

Of the literature of the nation we cannot say much. The language is a mixture of Arabic with some African dialects, and the clerks or scribes of the government make use of the Arabic characters. The people in general do not trouble themselves much with reading or writing, except that they are fond of cabalistic papers or written charms, in which, considered as tending to procure benefit or avert evil, they are so superstitious as to place great confidence.

The conduct and exploits of the present ruler of Bornou might not to pass without notice. He was born in Fezzan, and, after visiting Egypt, proceeded to the Kanem territory, of which his parents were natives, and was there respected as a pious sheikh, and as a moral and upright man. Observing, with disgust and indignation, the prevalence of the Felatahs, a nation of Arabian origin, in Bornou, he boldly advanced against them and obtained such advantages over them as enabled him to acquire the chief sway. He then placed on the throne the brother of a former sultan, reserving to himself the chief authority, like the peishwah in the chief Mahratta principality. He added other territories to the Bornou state, and was engaged in a new war of ambition when he was visited by the British adventurers. His force principally consists of cavalry, and is supposed to amount to 30,000 men, while his infantry can scarcely be said to exceed 10,000. The chief officers, as well as his own guard, wear closely-linked jackets of iron, with scarfs over them.

A powerful neighbouring prince is the sultan of MANDARA, whose people are intelligent and lively, with large sparkling eyes, wiry curled hair, and noses inclining to the aquiline form. Being harassed by the active vigor of the Felatahs, he found so little defence from the walls of his chief town against their attacks, that he built the town of Mora in a mountainous spot of great natural strength. He is also occasionally molested by the Kerdies, whose tribes almost surround his dominions. The fortifications by which he endeavours to secure his country consist of palisades well pointed, and fastened together with thongs of raw hide, six feet high, extending from one hill to another.

Mandara is a fine romantic country. The scenery is, in many parts, rich and beautiful; lofty peaks appear with clustering villages on their stony sides: even some of the valleys have an elevation superior to that of any part of the Bornou territory, and they abound with fruit-trees, aromatic plants, and flowers. The hills extend in apparently interminable ridges to the east and west, and, to the south, rocky mountains spread themselves out in almost every picturesque form that can be imagined. Iron is found in the hills in great plenty; and hoes, small bars, hoes, and other useful articles, are not only made for the immediate use of the Mandarese, but are sent for sale to the towns of Bornou.

To the south of the lake Tchad is the kingdom of LOGGOUN. Its capital, Kernouk, stands on the banks of the Shari, has high walls, and contains a population of about 15,000. The principal street is very wide, and has large houses on each side, built with great uniformity, each having a court-yard in front, and a handsome entrance by a strong door hasped with iron. The people are more intelligent and industrious than the Bornouese, and the women, in particular, are very lively and agreeable. Several branches of manufacture are carried on by both sexes with great spirit and success. They make neat tobos or shirts of linen, to which they give a fine gloss; and to their cotton they impart that deep blue dye which is admired by the African tribes.

On the frontiers of this country, and in many other parts of central Africa, the SHOUAS are found in great numbers. They are apparently

of Arabian descent. In consequence of the Arabian descent, the people of the fine open country are of a complexion is a light complexion, and are of great courage, are great prophets, find among the towns, which bear, indeed, a resemblance to the gypsies of England.

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were neat, clear (Clapperton) is Here are displayed antimony and tin red color, which with cotton in bracelets of brass blades from Mandara and calico; Mandara striped with gold many other articles for all sorts near the same.

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of Arabian descent; but (says the major) they have scarcely any resemblance to the Arabs who are found in the north of Africa. They have fine open countenances, with aquiline noses and large eyes; their complexion is a light copper color; they possess great cunning with their courage, are great charn-writers, and, by pretending to a natural gift of prophecy, find an easy entrance into the houses of the black inhabitants of the towas, where they often show their pilfering propensities. They bear, indeed, a strong resemblance, both in features and habits, to the gypsies of England.

Eager for additional exploration, the British adventurers directed their course to the kingdom of HOUSSA, in the territory of SOUDAN. In their way to it, they visited the province of Katagoum, subject to the sheik of Bornou. The city of that name was the strongest that they had seen since they left Tripoli; and some of its houses, though built of clay, were superior to any which he had seen in Central Africa. The fields and villages also exhibited appearances of industry and comfort. Houssa likewise smiled with cultivation; the markets in the towns were well supplied, and trade appeared to be brisk. Kano, the great emporium of the kingdom, appeared to him to contain above 30,000 inhabitants. The governor's mansion resembled a walled village, and within the enclosure was a mosque. Many of the houses, which in general were built of clay, were neat, clean, and commodious. "The market-place (says captain Clapperton) is filled with stalls of bamboo, laid out in regular streets. Here are displayed scissors and knives of native workmanship; crude antimony and tin, both the produce of the country; unwrought silk of a red color, which the people make into belts and slings, or weave in stripes with cotton into the finest tobes; beads of glass, coral, and amber; bracelets of brass, rings of pewter, and a few silver trinkets; sword-blades from Malta; tobes, turkadis, and turban shawls; coarse woollen and calico; Moorish dresses; pieces of Egyptian linen, checked or striped with gold; French writing-paper, brought from Barbary, and many other articles of traffic." A market for slaves of both sexes, another for all sorts of corn and fruit, and one also for cattle, are holden near the same spot, numerous attended, and admirably regulated.

In this town and neighbourhood, "the unmarried girls, whether slaves or free, and likewise the young unmarried men, wear a long apron of blue and white check, with a notched edging of red woollen cloth. It is tied with two broad bands, ornamented in the same way, and hanging down behind to the ankles. This fashion is peculiar to Soudan, and forms the only distinction in dress from the people of Bornou. Both men and women color their teeth and lips with the flowers of the *gourji* (a dwarfish kind of oak) and of the tobacco plant. These flowers give a blood-red tinge, which is here thought a great beauty.—Snuff, instead of being taken in our way, is chewed by both sexes in Soudan, and only by the men in Bornou. Smoking is the general practice of the men, while the women are debarred from it."

Proceeding to Sackatoo, the chief town in the territory of Bello, sultan of the Felatahs, king of Houssa, and the most powerful prince in Soudan, the captain was delighted with the appearance of the country, some parts of which reminded him of the parks of the English gentry. He had several friendly conferences with the sultan, whom he found willing to form an amicable connexion with Great-Britain, and who requested that a consul and a physician might be sent from our country to reside among his people.

Sackatoo (says the captain) "occupies a long ridge which slopes

gently toward the north, and is apparently more populous than any other town which I visited in the interior of Africa; for, unlike most other towns in Houssa, where the houses are thinly scattered, it is laid out in regular well-built streets. The houses approach close to the walls, which were built by the present sultan in 1818, the old walls being too confined for the increasing population. The new wall is between twenty and thirty feet high, and has twelve gates, which are regularly closed at sunset. There are two large mosques, beside several other places for prayer. There is a spacious market-place in the centre of the city, and another large square in front of the sultan's residence. The dwellings of the principal people are surrounded by high walls, which enclose numerous huts and flat-roofed houses, built in the Moorish style, whose large water-spouts of baked clay, projecting from the eaves, resemble at the first sight a tier of guns. The inhabitants are principally Felatahs, a brave and active race, and possess numerous slaves, to whom they are not unkind. Such of the latter as are not employed in domestic duties, reside in houses by themselves, where they follow various trades, of which the master, in course, reaps the profit. Their usual employments are weaving, house-building, shoe-making, and iron-work. Those who are occupied in raising grain and tending cattle, of which the Felatahs have immense herds, reside in villages out of the city. It is customary for private individuals to free a number of slaves every year, according to their means, during the great feast after the close of Lent. The enfranchised seldom return to their native country, but continue to reside near their old masters, still acknowledging them as their superiors, and presenting them yearly with a portion of their earnings. In this town the necessaries of life are very cheap; butchers' meat is in great plenty, and very good. The exports are principally civet and blue check tobacs, which are manufactured by the slaves from Nyfi, of whom the men are considered the most expert weavers in Soudan, and the women the best spinners. The common imports are large nuts brought from the borders of Ashantee; also coarse calico and woollen cloth in small quantities, brass and pewter dishes, and some few spices. The Arabs from Tripoli bring unwrought silk, perfumes, and spices; and slaves are both exported and imported. A great quantity of Guinea corn is taken every year by the Tuareks, in exchange for salt. On the north side of the town there is a low marsh, with some stagnant pools; and this is perhaps the cause of the great prevalence of ague, as the city stands in a fine airy situation."

Such is the most material part of the information which we have derived from the late travels in Central Africa. The disordered state of the country, and other circumstances, diverted the two officers (after they had lost their friend Dr. Oudney by an illness which all his skill could not cure) from the prosecution of their interesting journey. By reaching Sackatoo, they penetrated (according to the major's account) within 400 miles of Silla, the place at which Mr. Park stopped; but they had no opportunity of tracing the course of the Niger, or of discovering either the place of its rise or its mouth. It probably turns to the southward after a long course toward the east, and may perhaps flow into the Bight of Benin.

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PROCEEDING to the southward from the frontiers of Morocco, we pass the western extremity of the Sahara or Desert, which extends from Biledulgerid over an immense space in almost every direction. We may here observe, that, to the southward of the Algerine and Tunisian territories, a sandy and barren country, which few tribes inhabit, is called *Biled-ulgerid* (either the Land of Dates, or the Dry Country): it is not destitute of rivulets, and springs are found by digging; but it seldom rains, and the drought precludes the production of corn. The Sahara has been termed "a vast sea of lifeless sand," and also a "prodigious expanse of red sand and sand-stone rock;" and the interspersed oases are not very numerous or extensive. The tribes which occupy the country nearest to the western coast, are the Monselemines, Mongearts, Wadelims, Labdessebahs, 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, and also by the treaty of 1815. Near Cape Verd is the island of Goree, considered as one of the safest and most pleasant settlements in all Africa: it is now subject to France. To the southward of the same cape is the settlement of Sierra-Leone, formed from the purest motives of humanity, under the patronage of a 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. In 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. The colony, however, has not been abandoned; but the spot is so unhealthy, that its European population is very scanty. It is now chiefly inhabited by many thousands of negroes, who have been rescued by British humanity from the hands of the Spanish and Portuguese ruffians, who continue that abominable traffic in slaves which the general voice of Europe has indignantly condemned.

A settlement of a similar nature was formed on the fertile island of Bulam, belonging to the Bissago groupe. It was ceded, in 1792, by the king of a neighbouring island; but many 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; and the survivors took refuge among their countrymen at Sierra Leone. This insular groupe claims transient notice. Sixteen of the islands are considerably larger than the rest; and Bissao, in particular, is said to be forty miles in length, and thirty in breadth. It is inhabited by a hardy and warlike race, called *Papels*; and the Portuguese have long had settlements upon it. The *Biafaras* formerly occupied some of the islands; but they were expelled by the superior courage and more turbulent spirit of the *Bissagoes* or *Bijugas*.

GUINEA comprehends the grain-coast, the ivory-coast, the gold-coast, the slave-coast (which includes *Whidah* and *Ardrah*, now subject to *Dahomi*), and *Benin*. The principal kingdom, in this part, is *Dahomi*, the monarch of which subdued and annexed to his dominions *Whidah* and *Ardrah*, between the years 1724 and 1727. The

country of Dahomi is supposed to reach from the coast about 150 or 200 miles inland. Its soil is a deep rich clay of a reddish color, with a little sand on the surface. It produces maize and millet, Guinea-corn, and several species of beans. The people cultivate yams, potatoes of two sorts, the cassada or manioc: the plantain and the banana, pine-apples, melons, oranges, limes, guavas, and other tropical fruits, also abound in this fertile country, which likewise supplies productions adapted for commerce and manufactures; such as indigo, cotton, the sugar-cane, tobacco, palm-oil, and a variety of spices, particularly a species of pepper very similar in flavor, and indeed scarcely distinguishable from the black pepper of the East Indies. Dahomi abounds with buffaloes, deer, sheep, goats, hogs both wild and domestic, poultry of various kinds, particularly Guinea-fowl, and ducks like those of Russia. The elephant is used as food by the natives, and dogs are reared for the same purpose. The dress of the men 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. A hat, enriched with gold and silver lace, and decorated with a feather, is thought too fine for any person except the king and some of his ministers. 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 breast, and the upper part of the body. They adorn the neck, arms, and ancles, with beads and cowries, and wear rings of silver or of base 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 their bosoms. The general character of the Dahomese 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 easiest 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 Dahomi Proper, but in Whidah, and the other dependent states. With respect to the religion of the people, it consists of a jumble of superstitious ceremonies, of which it is impossible to convey any satisfactory idea. The government is perfectly despotic; the policy of the country admits no degree of subordination between the king and a 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 toward the apartment of audience on his hands and knees, till he appears before the king; he then lays himself flat on his belly, rubbing his head in the dust, and uttering the most humiliating expressions. Being desired to advance, he receives orders, or communicates any particular business, still continuing prostrate, for no person is permitted to sit, even on the floor, in the king's presence, except the women, and even they must kiss the ground when they,

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receive or deliver a royal message. The king maintains a considerable standing army, commanded by an agaow or general, with several 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 caboocier or grandee marching at the head of his own people. Sometimes the king takes the field at the head of his troops, and, on great emergencies, at the head of his women. Within the walls of the different royal palaces in Dahoni, are confined some thousands of 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 large umbrellas, flags, drums, trumpets, flutes, and other musical instruments.

The ASIANTEE or ASSENTAI kingdom, situated to the west of Dahoni and the north of the Gold Coast, was not known to Europeans even by name before the beginning of the last century. It was then loosely and vaguely mentioned as a powerful state, having inferior principalities in tributary subjection: but, notwithstanding the extent of the king's sway, he was wholly unacquainted with the coast, when his army, in 1806, advanced to the Dutch fort of Cormantine, in the pursuit of a routed body of Fantees. The British governor of Anamabo, alarmed at the approach of the invaders, in vain endeavoured to soothe the king into forbearance. The town was stormed, and some thousands of the inhabitants (chiefly Fantees) were massacred: but the fort was defended with such determined spirit by a very small garrison, that the enemy, after suffering considerable loss, retreated in confusion. In 1811, the invasion was renewed; and, in 1816, such dreadful cruelties were perpetrated upon the wretched Fantees, that the remains of the population were nearly reduced to absolute despair. Even the fort of Cape-Corse (commonly called Cape-Coast), the principal British station upon that coast, was blockaded by the intrepid Ashantees; and it was therefore resolved, in 1817, that a deputation should be sent to pacify and conciliate their monarch. Mr. Bowdich, and two associates, undertook the hazardous mission with alacrity; and, on their arrival at the chief town, they were met by 5000 persons, chiefly warriors, whose leaders performed a kind of military dance. When they were introduced to the king, they were astonished at the brilliant display of barbaric magnificence. They offered valuable presents, solicited his friendship, and requested the establishment of a commercial intercourse. Some jealousy having been instilled into his breast, difficulties arose in the course of the negotiation; and the gentlemen were detained for several months, before a treaty was concluded to their satisfaction.

The limits of this kingdom cannot be precisely stated; but it appears to be an extensive realm. From north to south, it may reach 350 miles, and, from east to west, 800. The metropolis, called Coumassi, is large and regularly built; it is insulated by a marsh, which contains many springs, that supply the town with water; and it is also encompassed by a fine forest. The figure is oblong, and the circumference between three and four miles: the principal streets are very long and wide. The walls of the houses are formed of stakes and wattle-work, filled up and coated with clay. They have gable ends, and thick poles support a frame of

bamboo, over which interwoven palm-leaves are placed for thatch. In general they have only one floor: and, where they have two, the lower part is divided by a wall, to support the rafters for the upper room, which are usually covered with a frame-work thickly stuccoed with ochre. The doors consist of an entire piece of wood, cut with great labor out of the stems or buttresses of the cotton-tree; and the windows are open wood-work, carved in fanciful figures and intricate patterns, and painted red. "The palace (says Mr. Bowdich) is an immense building of a variety of oblong courts and regular squares, the former with arcades along one side, some of round arches symmetrically turned, having a skeleton of bamboo; the entablatures exuberantly adorned with bold fan and trellis work of Egyptian character. They have a suite of rooms over them, with small windows of wooden lattice, of intricate but regular carved work; and some have frames cased with thin gold. The squares have a large apartment on each side, open in front, with two supporting pillars;" and this kind of *proscenium* is a mark of distinction; for none but military officers, beside the king, are permitted to build in this mode. Chairs and stools embossed with gold, and beds of silk, are among the articles of royal furniture.

The population of the capital is about 15,000, and that of the whole kingdom is perhaps one million, a fifth part of which is included in the military force. The men are well made, but not so muscular as the Fantees: the women are not remarkable for beauty; yet some have fine features and expressive countenances. Both sexes (except those of the lowest class) are very attentive to the neatness of their persons, "the women washing themselves, and the men being washed by them daily on rising, from head to foot, with warm water and Portuguese soap, using afterward a vegetable grease or butter, which is a fine cosmetic." The chief part of their apparel is dyed or painted cloth of their own manufacture. Some wear a vest and a tunic; others, particularly the slaves, are more slightly clad. Head-cloths, of coarse silk, are frequently worn by the females. Polygamy is allowed; but the people in general are content with monogamy, and most of the slaves are unmarried. The king is allowed by law to have 3333 wives, rather for the purpose of presenting one occasionally to a deserving subject, than for his exclusive gratification or domestic comfort. When they appear in public, they are preceded and surrounded by troops of boys, who clear the way with whips or thongs, and check the freedom of ocular observation.

The prevailing amusements are draughts, which both negroes and Moors play well, and worra, a similar game: they also divert themselves with dancing, in which their movements are graceful and even elegant. The chief public diversion is a periodical exhibition, connected with the maturity of the yam, their chief object of cultivation. The very commencement of this parade argues a shocking mixture of barbarity with the growing civilisation of the Ashantees; for, when the chieftains arrive with their armed dependents, they sacrifice a slave in each quarter of the town. These leaders are splendidly arrayed and accoutred. A garment of interwoven silk and cotton, of variegated hues and patterns, thrown over the shoulders like a Roman toga, a helmet decorated with the feathers of eagles, a silken fillet round the temples; neck-laces of massy gold, curiously wrought; suspended Moorish charms or amulets, enclosed in rich cases; ornaments at the knees and ancles; swords with golden hilts and glittering appendages; and other displays either of utility or embellishment; attest the dignity of the chieftains. The captains

are also dressed in riora, with ornate shoulders, caps of the hides of leopard diadem painted or of ornaments, clad with gold, with the finest stool holder his gay courtiers. The sound of his wine is taken by ened beards are morning, the king city: free men appear to participate intoxication ensue before the termination of the majority of whom are the altar of nation which the first year time, as if the of things. This cause death of a person the British envoy immediately put to death by the king killed in the market the body was by wanton barbarity stab a free man to it up.

The government of the king is controlled of the chieftains but they are not for the public service of every deceased nearest relative: from a large number of other spots which mere exposure; rarely followed or child is put to death, a man should wilfully of his own hands: fine, payable to they are guilty when the husband accused of, sorrow from the sense of a glaring point of by Mr. Bowdich are supposed to the term seem

are also dressed in a costly and fanciful manner; and the inferior warriors, with ornaments of less value, knives clustered on their hips and shoulders, caps of skins with long tails, and long musquets adorned with the hides of leopards, make a striking appearance. The king, having a diadem painted on his forehead, nearly oppressed with a superabundance of ornaments, clad in a silken robe, seated in a chair of ebony inlaid with gold, with the tails of elephants waving before him, and a magnificent stool holden up under a splendid umbrella, appears in the midst of his gay courtiers, and hails the anniversary with joy and satisfaction. The sounds of horns and drums fill up the pauses of musquetry. Palm-wine is taken by the chief officers, while the droppings from their moistened beards are caught in bowls by kneeling boys. On the following morning, the king sends a great quantity of rum to various parts of the city: free men and slaves, women and children, crowd around the brass pans to participate of the exhilarating beverage; and a confused scene of intoxication ensues, amidst discordant music and licentious songs. Before the termination of this celebrity, about a hundred persons, the majority of whom are delinquents reserved for punishment, are sacrificed at the altar of national superstition; and into that part of the earth from which the first yam is taken, blood is made to flow from some of the victims, as if the offering would tend to propitiate the Giver of all good things. This custom of human sacrifice is also an accompaniment of the death of a person of distinction. On the decease of a courtier's mother, the British envoys witnessed the horrible ceremony. Three girls were immediately put to death at the door of the house, one being sacrificed by the king's particular order; thirteen men were mangled and killed in the market-place; and more blood was shed in the bush where the body was buried. Sometimes the number is augmented by the wanton barbarity of the attendants at the funeral, who will suddenly stab a free man that is a spectator, roll him into the grave, and close it up.

The government is aristocratic, under the form of royalty; for the king is controlled by the chieftains and the assembly of captains. Four of the chieftains have palatine privileges, including a judicial power; but they are not exempt from taxation, when it is regularly ordained for the public service. The king is heir to the gold found in the house of every deceased subject; of which, however, he grants a part to the nearest relative: the rest of his revenue arises from various taxes, and from a large share of the washings and scrapings of the hills, and other spots which are rich in gold. Trifling thefts are punished by mere exposure; and the greatest crimes of that description are very rarely followed by the death of the offender. He who murders his wife or child is put to death; but, by the gross injustice of the government, a man may kill one of his slaves with impunity. If any one should wilfully occasion the death of an equal, he is allowed to die by his own hands: when he kills an inferior, he is merely subjected to a fine, payable to the family. Wives are generally purchased; and, if they are guilty of adultery, they are not punished with death, except when the husband is the king himself, or a captain. Those who are accused of sorcery are tortured to death. This cruel practice arises from the senseless superstition of the people, which will appear in a glaring point of view from the mention of various particulars stated by Mr. Bowdich. He says, that *fetishes* are subordinate deities, who are supposed to inhabit particular rivers, woods, and mountains; but the term seems to be more frequently used in the sense of *Obi*, the

fabricated and concentrated magic of the West-Indian slaves. The fetish-men form two orders in the community. By one class a reputed oracle is consulted with regard to the future fortune of a state or an individual, and artful answers are invented for the credulous. These expounders of the pretended will of the Deity are the priests of the kingdom; and the dignity is hereditary. Persons of the other class, while they pursue their various occupations in society, act as ordinary fortune-tellers or conjurors. There are also fetish-women, who, being considered as skilful herbalists, are consulted on the remedial uses of vegetables. Not satisfied with their own superstitions, the Ashantees, though a negro race, borrow absurdities from the Moors, whose fetishes they eagerly purchase, and carry about them as securities and preservatives against all accidents or misfortunes except sickness.

In various arts and manufactures, the Ashantees have considerable skill. Their architecture we have already noticed. In weaving they are very expert: their looms are constructed on the same principle with those of Great-Britain. They use a spindle, not a distaff, for spinning, holding it in one hand, and twisting the thread, which has a weight at the end, with a finger and the thumb of the other. The fineness, variety, brilliancy, and size of their cloths, are astonishing even to an European; and the richest silks are dexterously unraveled to be woven into them. They have two dye-woods, a red and a yellow; and they make a green color by mixing the latter with a blue dye, procured from a plant called the *acassie*. In pottery they excel; and the black articles in that branch of art are highly polished. They are good goldsmiths; but, as blacksmiths, they are less expert. They have no idea of making iron from ore, as some of the interior nations do; nor can they make locks like the people of Houssa. The art of tanning is not unknown to them: and they make neat sandals, belts, and pouches. Umbrellas and canopies are well manufactured. The guitar and other instruments are artfully fabricated, because the people have a strong inclination for music, which is therefore less rude among them than might be imagined.

A considerable trade is carried on by this nation with the interior parts of the country; and it is now extended to the Europeans on the coast. The dealers import iron, lead, gunpowder, silken articles, and other merchandise, for which they barter the native produce, or pay in gold dust. Of the variety and abundance with which their markets are supplied, the following enumeration will afford a specimen: "Among the commodities produced for sale at Coumassi (says Mr. Bowdich) were beef and mutton, the flesh of wild hogs, deer, and monkeys, fowls, poultry, yams, plantains, corn, sugar-canes, rice, encrurna (a plant resembling asparagus), pepper, vegetable butter, oranges, papaws, pine-apples, bananas; salted and dried fish from the coast; large snails, smoke-dried; palm-wine, rum; pipes, looking-glasses, sandals, silk, cotton cloth, small pillows, white and blue cotton-thread, &c."

The climate of this country is not remarkable for salubrity. Being more elevated than the coast, it is less sultry; yet it is often oppressively hot; the rains are frequent and heavy, and are occasionally accompanied with furious tornadoes. The most common diseases are those of the cutaneous species, dreadful ulcerations, and interior pains; and, in the capital, fevers and the dysentery are very prevalent, and, for want of proper medical aid, often fatal.

Before we were acquainted with the Ashantees, their superior civilisation was loudly proclaimed: but the report was rather delusive than well-founded. The puerile fondness of the higher class for idle show and

preposterous ornaments of some European understandings; their brutality; and their characters, who speaks in some order of people are said, he believed and not comparable, add, that they a lately were) ignorant

The Ashantee king the British colonists allies of the European and tributaries, a they were declared Charles Mac-Carribes to revolt, a number much less opportunity of furious vengeance another action, the hostilities. The of Aquimboo and tribes, were eager aspiring prince. Europeans, while was reinforced by away, he (in August contest, a part of rockets and granted an attack upon fortune of the day wounded, or mangled, and 2000 humbled the enemy

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preposterous ornaments, however it may coincide with the military foppery of some European princes, can only be mentioned as discreditable to their understandings: their zealous propensity to war is a disgusting proof of their brutality; and their horrible sacrifices reflect indelible disgrace on their characters and dispositions. Even in the opinion of Mr. Bowdich, who speaks in some instances too favorably of the nation, "the lower order of people are ungrateful, insolent, and licentious. The king repeatedly said, he believed them to be the worst people existing, except the Fantees, and not comparable with many of their inland neighbours." We may add, that they are immersed in the darkness of paganism, and are (or lately were) ignorant even of the elements of literature.

The Ashantee king, exulting in his power and resources, seemed to despise the British colonists at Cape-Corse castle, and again attacked the African allies of the Europeans. He compelled the Fantees to become his vassals and tributaries, and intimidated their protectors into a treaty, by which they were declared to be the tenants of the barbarian potentate. But Sir Charles Mac-Carthy, disregarding this agreement, encouraged the Fantee tribes to revolt, and encountered about 10,000 of the Ashantees with a number much less than a tenth part of that amount. They took an opportunity of surrounding his small army, and he was sacrificed to their furious vengeance. In the next conflict his troops were repelled, and, in another action, they suffered so severely, that he was glad to desist from hostilities. The war was renewed as soon as it appeared that the kings of Aquimboo and Aquapim, the queen of Aikim, and other heads of tribes, were eager to join colonel Purdon in an expedition against the aspiring prince. It is stated, that this gallant officer could only muster 560 Europeans, while the Ashantee army amounted to 20,000 men; but, as he was reinforced by more than 10,000 natives, who promised not to run away, he (in August 1826) boldly engaged the enemy. After an hour's contest, a part of his right wing gave way; but, by a destructive fire of rockets and grape-shot, his adversaries were in their turn disordered, and an attack upon their left flank by the king of Aquimboo decided the fortune of the day. About 5000 of the Ashantees (it is said) were killed, wounded, or made prisoners; and, in the victorious army, 800 lost their lives, and 2000 were wounded. Whether this victory has sufficiently humbled the enemy, we have not yet learned.

BENIN is a country situated in a very unwholesome climate, to the east of Dahomi. Among its wild animals are elephants, tigers, leopards, and crocodiles. The dress of the natives is neat and ornamental. The rich wear cotton petticoats; but the upper part of the body is usually 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 the men are jealous of each other, they are not so of Europeans; and, while many think it impossible that the taste of the women can be so depraved as to induce them to grant liberties to a white man, there are some who will offer their wives for the gratification of strangers. Their religion is paganism. An absolute authority is exercised in the king's name by three great officers, distinguished by a string of coral, who continually attend him. Benin, the capital, fills a vast space, but it is not very closely built. 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 considerable part of the town is occupied by the royal palace, which, however, is neither elegant nor commodious.

In proceeding to the southward, we meet with the kingdom of LOANGO, which was formerly a dependency upon that of Congo. The people are industrious, and not only occupy themselves in various arts, but engage also in commercial pursuits. They are superstitious, like other African tribes, and trust to the effect of sorcery and the power of charms. The climate is remarkably warm, and a long dry season regularly follows a long continuance of rain. The cocoa and banana thrive beside the more common fruit-trees; and the cotton-plant and sugar-cane are cultivated with success.

CONGO is bounded on the north by Loango, on the south by Angola, and on the east by the territory of the Giagas. The climate is extremely hot in summer; but the winters are as mild as the finest springs of Italy. The wild animals are elephants, lions, leopards, panthers, wolves, zebras, buffaloes, &c. The country is likewise infested with a variety of serpents, some of which are of a monstrous length and thickness; with rattlesnakes, vipers, scorpions, and venomous insects of various kinds, both flying and reptile. Among the insects the most wonderful are the *termites* or white ants, which construct works in the most ingenious manner, and apparently in a scientific form, and compose an orderly and well regulated community. Their earthen structures are sometimes raised to the height of seven or eight feet, and appear like the huts of the natives. These little creatures not only destroy the fruits of the earth, but in the night surround beasts, and sometimes men, in prodigious swarms, and devour them in a few hours, leaving only the bones.

This country was discovered, in 1487, by the Portuguese, who formed settlements on the coast, and endeavoured, but not with effective success, to convert the natives to Christianity. A more intelligent and judicious nation would have civilised the people with whom a connexion was thus established; but it appears, from the hints of captain Tuckey and his companions, that those who were most conversant with the Portuguese, were "sulky-looking vagabonds," dirty in the extreme, and barbarians in their appearance and manners, though some of them pretended to be zealous Christians.

Society, in Congo, is divided into the following classes: the *chen* or chief, and his family; the civil and financial officers, who also engage in trade; the yeomanry, who are the owners of houses and lands; fishermen and laborers, and domestic slaves. The rights of property are strictly recognised, and even minutely distinguished. Agriculture is rudely practised; but the fertility of the soil compensates this want of skill. The habitations, in general, are wretched huts of mats or reeds, and matted grass serves both for bedding and clothing. Many chieftains are dispersed over the country, who appear to act arbitrarily within their own boundaries, while they acknowledge the supremacy of the great king.

To the southward of Congo is the kingdom of ANGOLA, which used to supply the French and other dealers in slaves with multitudes of those wretched and degraded beings, and still furnishes the Spaniards and Portuguese with a considerable number, as those nations continue the abominable traffic, in defiance of the general voice of Europe. In Loanda, which is the chief town, the Portuguese have a settlement, which is the great mart of slaves.

Farther to the south is the territory of BENGUELA, with which the Portuguese are also connected. The climate of this country is particu-

larly insalubrious, and does not exist among European colonies.

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larly insalubrious, and the people are rude and barbarous. Mines of copper exist among the mountains; but they are not rendered, even by the European colonists, subservient to general use.

SOUTHERN AFRICA.

A GREAT extent of country in this division is comprehended under the general name of CAFRARIA, or CAFIR-LAND; the limits of which, however, are very differently given by geographers. Some carry it to the northward of the equator, while others confine it to the distance of 700 miles from the Cape of Good Hope. It is apparently divided into various states, of which no accurate knowledge has been obtained.

The men among the Cafirs, 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. Their complexions are black, their teeth are white, and their eyes large. The clothing is nearly the same for both sexes, 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, and other fantastic ornaments. They are extremely fond of dogs, which they receive in return 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 exercises are hunting, fighting, and 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 fields. They raise several vegetables which are not indigenous to their country: such as tobacco, water-melons, a sort of kidney-beans, and hemp. They also make baskets, and the mats on which they sleep. The men have great pride in their cattle; and they cut their horns in such a way as to be able to turn them into any shape whatever; and they teach them to answer a whistle.

The soil of this country is a blackish loamy ground, so fertile, that every vegetable substance, whether sown or planted, grows in it with great luxuriance. It seldom rains except in the summer, when it is accompanied with thunder and lightening. The country, however, is very well supplied with water, not only from the high land toward the north, but from many fountains which are found in the woods. The woods also produce a variety of arboreous plants, and some of a great size; they are inhabited by elephants, buffaloes, &c. There are also varieties of beautiful birds and butterflies.

To judge of the Cafirs by those whom I saw, says M. Le 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. Their features are likewise more agreeable. Their faces do not contract toward the bottom; nor do their cheek-bones project in the uncouth manner of the Hottentots; nor 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, if we set aside our prejudice with regard to color, 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; yet they are very much tattooed, particularly about the face.

We have already mentioned the fondness of the Cafirs for ornaments; but they only wear them in the warm season: when the weather is cold, they make use of *krosses*, or clokes, made of the skins of calves or oxen, which reach to the feet. One particularity which deserves attention, is, that the Cafir women care little for ornaments. Indeed, they are well made, and pretty, when compared with other savages; and never use the uncouth profusion of Hottentot finery, not even wearing copper bracelets. Their aprons, like those of the Gonaquas, are bordered with small rows of beads,—the only vanity which they exhibit.

The skin that the female Hottentot ties about the loins, the Cafir woman wears as high as her shoulders, tying it over the bosom, which it covers. They have *krosses*, as well as the men; but neither men nor women cover their heads. Sometimes, indeed, I have seen the head of a Cafir 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 the fabrication of earthen-ware, 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 Cafirs 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 by 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 attack of an enemy. The hearth, or fire-place, is in the centre, surrounded by a raised border.

Their wives are usually purchased with cattle. When the bargain is adjusted, the chief of the tribe publicly gives the nuptial exhortation, by desiring the bride to manage domestic concerns with sedulous zeal, to assist in the cultivation of the earth, and to be a chaste and dutiful wife. He also gives advice to the bridegroom, for the proper government of his family, and particularly recommends a constant attention to the support of his wife and future offspring, not forgetting to intimate the duty of providing for the occasional entertainment of the chief, and the payment of the tax to which he is entitled. The marriage is supposed to be completed, when the bride has taken some milk that is offered to her. The friends of the happy pair rejoice, drink, and dance, for several days after the ceremony.

Industry is a leading trait in the character of the Cafirs. Some arts, taught indeed by necessity, a love of agriculture, with a few religious dogmas, distinguish them as a more civilised people than those toward the south. 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 that the world had no beginning, and that it will ever continue in its present state. They have no sacred ceremonies, no priests; but, instead of that order of men, they have conjurers, whom they greatly distinguish and revere. They are governed by a chief or king, whose power is very limited, who receives few taxes, and has no troops at his command, but is the father of a free people, neither

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attended nor feared, but respected and beloved, and frequently poorer than many of his subjects. As he is permitted to take many wives, who think it an honor to belong to him, it is necessary that he should have a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle: 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 live around him, composing a groupe of twelve or fifteen huts: the adjoining lands are generally of his own cultivation.

In the southernmost part of Cafraria is included the colony of the CAPE of GOOD HOPE, which is divided into four districts: the Cape district, that of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein, that of Zwelldam, and that of Graaf Reynet.

Of that extensive territory which is considered as dependent on the colony, a great portion may be considered as an unprofitable waste, unfit for any sort of culture, or even to be employed as pasture. Level plains, consisting of a hard impenetrable surface of clay, thinly sprinkled over with crystallised sand, condemned to perpetual drought, and producing only a few straggling tufts of herid, 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 nearly one half of the colony of the Cape. Two of these chains of mountains enclose the great Karroo, or dry desert, extending 250 miles in length, and 80 in breadth, and uninhabited. Behind the town called Cape-town, are the Table Mountain, the Devil's Mountain, the Lion's Head, and the Lion's Back. The first 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 one side, and the Lion's Head on the other, make, in fact, with the Table, 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, 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 and False Bays; but the principal streams of the colony are the Berg or Mountain river; the Breede or Broad (called also the Orange) river, which has its periodical inundations like the Nile, and its cataracts; the Sunday and the Great Fish rivers.

The climate of the Cape appears to be in general free from the extremes of heat and cold, and not unhealthy. It was usual with the Dutch to consider the year as consisting of two periods, called the good and the bad monsoon; but, as these are neither regular in their returns, nor certain in their continuance, the division into four seasons, as in Europe, seems 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 former generally commences near the close of

May, and blows occasionally till the end of August, and sometimes through the month of September. The south-west predominates during the rest of the year, and, when the cloud shows 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 labor of the husbandman. Barley and rye are likewise raised, 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. The market is likewise tolerably well supplied with most of the European vegetables for the table, from the farms which are scattered about the eastern side of the colony. On some of these farms are vineyards also of considerable extent, which not only supply the market with fine grapes and raisins, but furnish a great quantity of palatable wine.

The principal wild animals near the Cape, are wolves and hyenas; but they are now much less frequently seen than they formerly were. Various kinds of antelopes are found, among which are those called by the Dutch the spring-bok, the gems-bok, and the greis-bok. The first is remarkable for its agility, whence it derives its name. More inland are lions, buffaloes, elephants, and, in the rivers, *hippopotami*, called by the Dutch sea-cow. The horses of the Cape are not indigenous, but were first introduced from Java, and subsequently from various parts of the world. The heavy draught-work is chiefly performed by oxen. The Cape oxen are distinguished by long legs, high shoulders, and large horns, and the sheep by the uncommon size and fatness of their tails. The larger kinds of birds which hover round the summit of the Table-mountain, are eagles, vultures, kites, and crows.

Cape-town, the capital of this colony, and indeed the only assemblage of houses entitled to the name of a town, is pleasantly situated at the head of Table-bay, on an easy slope from the mountains. The houses are built with regularity, and kept in neat order. The streets are straight and parallel, intersecting each other at right angles: many are open and airy, with canals running through them, walled in, and planted on each side with oaks; but some are narrow and ill-paved. Several squares give an openness to the town. In one the public market is holden; another is the common resort of the peasants 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, are a large, well-designed, regular structure, occupying, with the wings, 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, lodgings for all the officers of one regiment, magazines for artillery, stores, and ammunition; and most of the public offices of government are within its walls.

The population of the town is estimated at about 6500 whites, inclusive of the military, and 12,000 slaves; that of the colony, exclusive of the town, is estimated at 16,000 whites. Between the town and Table-mountain are scattered over the plain a number of neat houses surrounded by plantations and gardens. In the year 1820, Great-Britain poured

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forth a part of its superabundant population upon the south-eastern part of the Cape colony. A considerable number of emigrants, of both sexes, landed at Algoa-Bay, about 500 miles from Cape-town, and proceeded, under the authority of the government, to take possession of large allotments of land near the Great-Fish river and in other districts. They met with great difficulties in the progress of colonisation: famine sometimes menaced them with its horrible visitation; and illness swept away not a few of the number; but the new colony was at length so far established, as not to prove an absolute failure.

As the Dutch and other Europeans did not in general quit the Cape or its dependencies when the British conquest was effected, the aspect of a Dutch colony is not wholly removed by the change of masters. The same attention to business is apparent: money and merchandises are the most prominent subjects of conversation, and the chief objects of regard. But the British colonists are more liberal, friendly, and hospitable, than the Dutch, and less tyrannical in the treatment of their Hottentot and Malay slaves; and, with regard to the ladies, it may be observed, that those of the Dutch families are not more phlegmatic than the English women, but are lively, good-humored, and fond of social intercourse.

The southern extremity of Africa was discovered, in 1493, by the Portuguese navigator Bartholomew Diaz, 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 in November, 1497, proceeded to India, and landed at Calicut in the following May. 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 it was first visited by the Dutch: but for many years they 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 named Van Riebeck pointed out to the directors of the Dutch India company the great advantages which would be derived from 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, till it surrendered by capitulation to the British arms, in 1795. It was restored by the treaty of Amiens; but, in 1806, it was again reduced under the dominion of Great-Britain. Being retained during the rest of the war, it flourished under a wise administration, and was finally ceded to our sovereign, in 1815, by the king of the Netherlands.

The Hottentots of the Cape colony, formerly the possessors of the country, were reduced by the Dutch to abject slavery. In such a state of discouragement and oppression, their number gradually declined: there are still, however, many tribes to which the general name of Hottentot is given by the Dutch and the English, as the Namaquas, the Bosjesmen, and the Gonaquas, who still preserve their independence. The first vary little in their persons and dress from the Hottentots of the Cape and the Gonaquas, though their language is widely different. The Bosjesmen, or *Bush-men*, so called from their lying in ambush in their predatory expeditions against the farmers of the colony, are an extraordinary

race of people. In their persons they are not only diminutive and even dwarfish, but are among the ugliest of all human beings. Their flat noses, high cheek-bones, prominent chins, and concave visages, partake much of the apish character. Their bellies are uncommonly protuberant, and their backs hollow; yet their limbs seem to be in general well proportioned, and they have more animated eyes and more expressive countenances than the generality of the Hottentots, chiefly in consequence of that necessity of exertion which arises from the want of property and of the common necessaries of life. They wander about the country, clad in sheep-skins; sleep in mountainous caverns, in the clefts of rocks, in bushes, or in holes which they make in the ground; and they have no laws or government among their hordes. They destroy wild animals with poisoned arrows, and, having cut out the poisoned part, greedily devour the raw flesh. Serpents, locusts, and white ants, beside a few roots, are eaten by these savages, whose jealousy and malignity, when they can procure more palatable food, prompt them to destroy or spoil what they cannot consume.

Of the tribes of Southern Africa, M. le Vaillant has given an amusing account. The Gonaquas, he thinks, are of a mixed breed between the Cafirs and the ordinary Hottentots. Their dress resembles that of the latter; but, as they are taller, they make their mantles of the skins of calves instead of those of sheep. Several of them wear, hanging from their necks, a piece of ivory, or very white sheep-bone; and this contrast of hue 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 the 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 more fond of dress than the men, employ greater care in adorning their persons. They wear a kross or mantle like the latter; but the apron which conceals their sex is larger than that of the Hottentots. During the great heat they retain only this apron, with a skin which descends behind from the girdle to the calf of the leg: girls below the age of nine years go entirely naked; when they attain that age, they wear nothing but a small apron.

"Their huts (says the same author), constructed like those of the Hottentots in the colonies, are eight or nine feet in diameter, and are covered with the skins of oxen or of sheep, but more commonly with mats. They have only one opening, very narrow and low; and it is in the middle of the hut that the domestic fire is kindled. The thick smoke with which these hovels are filled, and which has no other vent but the door, added to the smell which they always retain, would almost suffocate Europeans; custom, however, renders it supportable to these savages.

"The two hues for which they show the greatest fondness are red and black. The former is composed of a kind of ochrey earth, which is found in several parts 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 but soot, or the charcoal of tender wood. Some women, indeed, are content with painting only the prominence of the cheeks; but in general they daub over the whole body, in compartments, varied with some degree of symmetry; and this part of their dress requires no small length of time. These decorative

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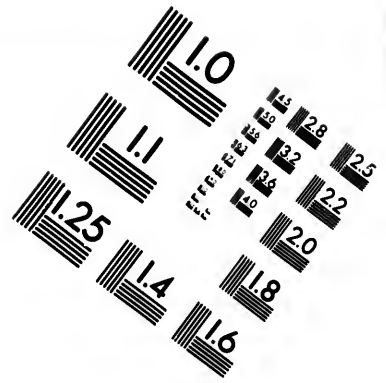
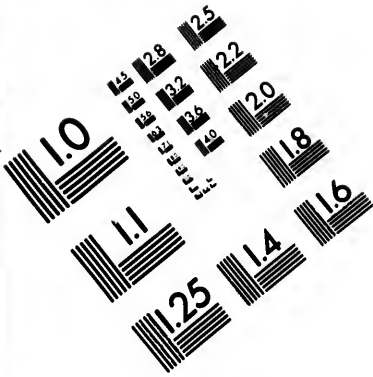
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materials are always perfumed with the powder of the *boughou*, which is not very agreeable to the smell of an European. A Hottentot would, perhaps, find some of our odors and essences no less insupportable; but the boughou has over our rouge and pastes the advantage of not being pernicious to the skin, of not attacking and injuring the lungs; and the female Hottentot, who is unacquainted with amber, musk, or benzoin, never knows what it is to be oppressed by vapors, spasms, and the headache. The men never paint their faces; but they use a preparation made of both colors mixed to paint the upper lip as far as the nostrils; by which they enjoy the advantage of continually inhaling the odor of the substance employed for this purpose. Young girls sometimes favor 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 powerful influence over the heart of a Hottentot novice. The reader, however, must not infer that the 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 colonists by desert mountains and rugged 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 so imperiously requires of them.

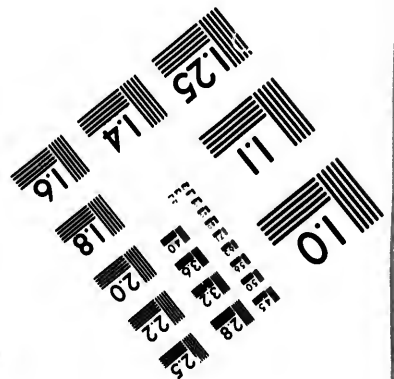
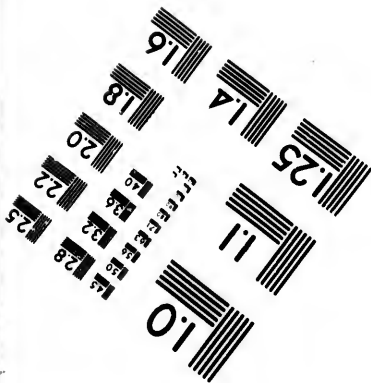
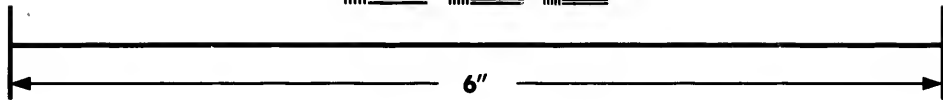
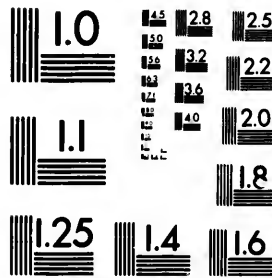
“The wild Hottentots are remarkably fond of hunting, and in this exercise they display great dexterity. Beside gins and snares, which they place at convenient spots to catch large animals, they lie in wait for them also, attack them as soon as they appear, and kill them with their poisoned arrows, or with their *assagays* or lances. On the first view of their arrows, one would not suspect that they were very destructive weapons: but 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 should reach the blood, and 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 *assagay* is generally a very feeble weapon in the hands of a Hottentot; but, beside this, its length renders it not dangerous, for, as it may be seen cleaving the air, it is not difficult to avoid it.

“They pay little attention to agriculture, but are very attentive to pasturage. 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; beside which they have the produce of their hunting-excursions, and sometimes 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 of which we deprive them 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 burthens must be broken and trained very early to the service; otherwise they would become absolutely intractable. On this account, when the animal is still young, they pierce the cartilage





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which separates the nostrils, and thrust through the whole 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 these animals are never beaten or tormented, they are exceedingly tractable.

"Of sheep and kine each village has one common herd, every inhabitant taking 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, leopards, hyenas, wolves, and other furious animals that abound in the forests, and occasionally make excursions toward 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 discover if any beast of prey be lurking in that quarter. In this case he assembles the whole village, 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.

"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 relatives 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. Such a mausoleum proves a very weak defence against the attacks of the jackal and the hyena: 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 Persees, 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."

M. le Vaillant thus speaks of the personal appearance of the Hottentots: "A physiognomist, or 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 in his features something peculiar, 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 enameled and perfectly white: his eyes, beautiful and open, incline a little toward 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 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-

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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 as it appears. This gives him an effeminate look; which, joined to the natural mildness of his character, destroys the commanding fierceness usual among savages."

Their general character he delineates in favorable colors. After the mention of their natural timidity, phlegmatic reserve, and profound indifference to the affairs of life, he says, "they are the best, the kindest, and the most hospitable of men. Whoever travels among them may be assured of finding food and lodging; and, though they will receive presents, 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 will supply him with provisions as far as their circumstances allow, and with every thing else necessary for continuing his journey, and reaching the place of his destination."

This praise is corroborated and confirmed by Mr. Barrow, who says of the Hottentots, "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 which 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 it into action."

To the north of the colony is the Boshuana territory, inhabited by tribes that have made a greater progress in civilisation and the arts than the other natives of Cafraria. They display a greater degree of skill in the construction of their houses; they are better cultivators of the earth; and their government is more settled and regular. They have even a considerable and populous town called Latakoo, where the houses are built in a circular form, with a fourth part open, and the other three parts walled up with clay and stones, having a separate room for keeping utensils and articles of dress. Mr. Campbell, a missionary, visited this part of the country, and was introduced to the king of Latakoo, whose government in some measure resembled the feudal system, as there were many chieftains to whom he assigned lands in consideration of their subserviency. His people were in the habit of forming connexions with individuals of other nations, making mutual presents, and residing for a considerable time at each other's houses. This practice seems to evince a friendly disposition; but, like the rest of the Boshuana tribes, they are guilty of cruel acts; for the old and infirm among them are frequently left to perish, and, when women have twins, one child is sometimes put to death.——Mr. Campbell also penetrated into the Maroutzi kingdom, the capital of which is said to contain about 16,000 inhabitants. The ruler of this state occasionally held a sort of parliament, in which speaking and dancing were alternately practised.

THE EASTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

THE Portuguese are better acquainted with this part of Africa than other Europeans; but they are not very communicative of the knowledge which they have acquired of it. Of the Terra de Natal we know so little, that it is useless to speak of that country. Proceeding along the coast, we find the bay of Delagoa, into which the Mafumo runs. The neighbouring districts have a fertile soil, and are inhabited by Cafirs; and the bay is visited by ships which are employed in the southern whale fishery.

In the port of Sofala, the Portuguese have a settlement, 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 very few tawny or brown among them. Those on the coast speak the Arabic language; for they are not the descendants of the original natives, but the posterity 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, between the 15th and 20th degrees of south latitude. The climate is temperate, and the soil is not only very fertile in rice, but also in sugar-canes, which 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 unlimited polygamy. The army of the king consists only of infantry; for there are no horses in the country.

Beyond Mocaranga stretches the extensive country of Zanguebar, containing the kingdoms of Mosambique, Melinda, and several others. Of Mosambique we have scarcely any knowledge; but it appears that the kingdom of Melinda produces gold, ivory, ostrich feathers, wax, drugs, rice, sugar, and cocoa-nuts. Some of the natives are black, and some merely swarthy; the women are mostly of an olive complexion. The dress, among the females of a higher class, is very elegant; for they wear handsome veils, and garments of fine silk, decorated with rich gold or silver girdles, and collars and bracelets of the same, or something equally valuable. 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 more than a piece of cloth round the middle. Their weapons are the shield, the bow and arrows, the broad sword and javelin. Their government is monarchical; and with such veneration is the king honored 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 exert their musical talents in his praise. The population is estimated at about 200,000 persons. With respect to religion, the generality are Pagans, some are Mohammedans, and some Christians, converted by the Portuguese, who have in the capital (likewise named Melinda) many churches, monasteries, 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

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great number of shoals, and rocks under water.—Near the coast of Zanguebar is the island of Mombassa, of which the English took possession in 1824, at the request of the inhabitants, who, having long before shaken off the Portuguese yoke, wished to free themselves from the tyranny of the imam of Muscat. It has a large and excellent harbour, and furnishes traders with grain, cocoa-nuts, ivory, and gum copal.

The country of Ajan is the boundary of Zanguebar toward the north. It lies between 2 and 12 degrees of northern latitude, extending from the river Magadoxo to Cape Guardafui, and contains several states or kingdoms, concerning which scarcely any thing is known that a geographer can state with certainty. 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 their captives. They trade 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, Socotra, the Comoro islands, Madagascar, Mauritius, and Bourbon.

SOCOTRA is situated thirty leagues to the eastward of Cape Guardafui. It is eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours. It is very well peopled, and yields most of the fruits and plants which are usually found within the tropics, with frankincense, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are of Arabian extraction, and are under the government of an independent prince or sheik.

The COMORO ISLES are five; Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, Angazei, and Comoro. The Grand Comoro is 50 miles long and 15 broad, and is chiefly composed of mountains, which unite near the centre, where the summit is about 7500 feet in height. Joanna, or Hinzuau, is about thirty miles long and fifteen broad, and affords plenty of provisions and tropical fruit. The inhabitants are partly of Arabian descent, and partly of African origin, and are in general mild and humane.

MADAGASCAR is the largest of the African islands, being above 900 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, forming a channel or passage, through which European ships in their voyage to and from India frequently sail.

Madagascar is a pleasant, desirable, and fertile country, abounding in sugar, honey, fruit-trees, valuable gums, corn, cattle, poultry, precious stones, iron, some silver, copper, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and plains; and it is watered by numerous rivers. The air is generally temperate, and said to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. Among the inhabitants are white and black tribes, and also people of color. The whites and those of a tawny complexion, who inhabit the coasts, are the offspring of the Arabs, as is evident from their

language and their religious rites; but here are no mosques or 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 has been conjectured that they are the posterity of Jews who formerly settled here. 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 time the natives have had, with the exception of a few settlements of Europeans, the sole possession of the island, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon each other for slaves and plunder.

MAURITIUS was so called by the Dutch (who first touched here in 1598) in honor of prince Maurice their stadtholder; but it is now generally styled the Isle of France. It is about 400 miles east of Madagascar. It is of an oval form, about 140 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, secure against any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is healthy and pleasant. The mountains, of which there are many, and some so high that their tops are covered with snow, produce excellent ebony, beside various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly resemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow. The island is well watered, and, though the soil is not 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 the French gained possession of it in 1715. By the English it was taken in 1810, and is still in our possession.

BOURBON is situated about 300 miles east of Madagascar, and is about 90 miles in circuit. 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 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, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreshed with cooling gales, that blow in the 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 springs and brooks, and produces aloe, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood, and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and resins, particularly benzoin of an excellent sort, in great plenty. The rivers are well stocked with fish, the coast with land and sea tortoises, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergris, coral, and the most beautiful shells, are found upon the shore. The woods are full of turtle-doves, perroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye and pleasant to the palate. The French first settled here in 1672; and, though they were dispossessed of the island by the English in the last war, they regained it by the treaty of peace.

Leaving the Indian Ocean, 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 toward which various islands

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old world) on the east, and America (or the new world) on the west; toward which division we now steer our course, touching in our way at various islands near the African coast.

The first island on this side of the Cape is ST. HELENA, which is about 1100 miles west of the continent of Africa, and 1700 east of South America. It is a very high and steep rock, about twenty-one miles in circumference. On the north-west side is a small town in a valley at the end of a bay, well defended by forts and batteries. The inhabitants, including the garrison, nearly amount to 3000. The wind blows almost perpetually from the south-east: the air is cool, pleasant, and healthy: thunder and lightning are scarcely known; and light flying showers produce a quick vegetation; but the want of rain is sometimes a very serious grievance. The plantations afford, among other useful supplies, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn: of the last, however, a great part is devoured by rats, which harbour in the rocks: so that it is necessary to import flour from England; and, in times of scarcity, yams and potatoes are used instead of bread. Though the island appears on every side a hard barren rock, it is agreeably diversified with hills and plains; and the inhabitants have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, and poultry, with which they supply the passengers and sailors in the India ships, taking in exchange shirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of calico, silk, muslin, arrack, sugar, &c.

St. Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese in 1502, on the festival of Helena, mother of Constantine the Great. It does not appear that the Portuguese ever planted a colony in the island; and the English India company took possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprise. It was subsequently recovered, and retained by the company, until the year 1815, when, being considered as a safe place of confinement, from which a prisoner could not escape without treachery or a want of due vigilance on the part of the garrison, it was transferred to the government for the reception of Napoleon, the most determined and dangerous enemy of Great-Britain, who, thus exiled, lived in discontent, and died in despair, in the year 1821.

About 600 miles to the north-west of St. Helena, is ASCENSION, which received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day. It rose from the sea by volcanic force, and its precipices chiefly exhibit masses of lava, in which are veins of opal. It bears a most rugged aspect, and has no appearance of fertility. It is not more than nine miles in length, and its breadth does not exceed six. A small British force was stationed here, when Napoleon was a prisoner at St. Helena; but the island is now, we believe, uninhabited. It has a good harbour, where the India ships, occasionally, touch to procure turtles, which are very numerous, and of a large size.

The CAPE-VERD 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. They were first discovered in 1460 by the Portuguese, and are about twenty in number; but some of them, being only barren uninhabited rocks, are unworthy of notice. Sant-Iago, Antonio, and Nicola, are the most considerable. One is a mere volcano, and is therefore called Fogo. The air is frequently very hot, and, in some of these islands, very unwholesome. They are

inhabited by Europeans, or the descendants of Europeans, and negroes.

SANT-IAGO is 140 miles in circuit, and is the most fruitful: 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 is the madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs. Praya (famous for a conflict between an English and French squadron) is on the east side, has a good port, and is seldom without ships, those outward-bound to Guinea or to the East-Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreshments.

In the island of **MAYO**, belonging to this groupe, 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 that runs along the coast for several miles. Here the English carry on a considerable trade for salt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the vessels which come to load with it. 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. Asses are also an article of trade at this island, whence they are conveyed to the West-Indies.

The **CANARIES**, anciently called the Fortunate Islands, are situated at the distance of 150 miles south-west of Morocco. Their particular names are, the Grand Canary, Teneriffe, Palma, Gomera, Hiero or Ferro, Fuerte-ventura, and Lancerota. These islands enjoy a pure temperate air, and abound in the most delicious fruit, especially grapes, from which a rich species of wine is made. The Canaries also produce those beautiful birds which bear their name, and are now so common and so much admired in Europe.

TENERIFFE, the largest island of this groupe, is about 120 miles in circuit; a fruitful country, abounding in corn, wine and oil, though it is encumbered with mountains. The highest point is called the Peak or Pic. The ascent to this elevated spot is not so very hazardous or difficult as it was long imagined to be. From Orotava a deep ravine commences; a chesnut forest then appears, covering the flank of those mountains which form a central chain across the island. A series of verdant hills follow; after which the track leads across a steep mass of lava rock, worn into ravines, and exhibiting a thin surface of yellow pumice. At length an undulated plain spreads itself, like a fan, to a great extent, until it terminates in the second region of the peak and a range of precipices. A steep mountain of pumice is next ascended, and varied masses of lava require to be passed, before the summit of this stage of the mountain is attained. The foot of the cone is then reached; and the subsequent ascent is rendered troublesome and fatiguing by the excessive steepness of the cone. The feet of adventurous visitants sink into the ashes at every step, and quantities of pumice and lava are rolled down upon them. Of the highest part, the superficial extent is about an acre and a half; and this is itself a small crater, in which sulphureous heat is observable. The height of the Pic is calculated at 13,265 feet.

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Santa Cruz is the capital of Teneriffe, and the seat of government for all the seven islands. Though not large, it is a well-built city. Laguna exceeds it in magnitude, but has a mean appearance. Out of 150,000 persons, who form the whole population of the Canaries, 60,000 may be assigned to Teneriffe.

This island, in November 1826, suffered severely from the fury of a hurricane, the violence of rain, and the force of swollen waters. At Santa-Cruz the mischief was not very serious; but, on that side of the island where Port Orotava stands, several vessels were lost with many of their navigators, and a well-cultivated valley exhibited a scene of desolation. The torrents from the mountains swept away a great number of houses with their inmates, destroyed vineyards, and inflicted other damage. Above 100 dead bodies were found in one district.

Fuente-Ventura is larger than the Grand Canary; but it scarcely contains 9000 inhabitants, while the latter has about 45,000. One island is remarkable for drought: the other has a sufficient supply of moisture to produce such fertility, that there are two, and sometimes three, harvests of wheat and maize in one year: hence the Great Canary is called the granary of the insular groupe.

These islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians: but they remained, for a long course of ages, unknown to the European nations. Bethencourt, a French gentleman, endeavoured to colonise them in 1402; and a Castilian, named Herrera, made similar attempts in 1464. Other efforts were made by the Spaniards on a larger scale; and, at length, the islands were subdued, after the Guanches, or descendants of the original inhabitants, who appear to have attained a considerable degree of civilisation, had been nearly extirpated by the inhumanity and bigotry of the invaders.

MADERA, which is also reckoned among the African islands, derived its appellation from its being formerly almost covered with wood. It is about 60 miles long and 40 broad, and consists 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. In the midst of this slope the merchants have fixed their country-seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. The chief town, named Fonchal, stands on the southern side of the island: toward the sea, it is defended by a high wall with a battery, and is the only place where it is possible for a boat to land; and even there the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it. Of the bay, on which the town borders, the extremities are formed by two steep promontories, composed of volcanic rocks. It may rather be called an inconvenient road than a good harbour. Though the city is the seat of the governor, the bishop, and the court of the inquisition, it is far from being elegant or handsome. It is irregularly built; the streets are narrow, crooked, and ill-paved, and are generally in a very dirty state. The churches and convents are numerous; but they are not remarkable for beauty or magnificence, though some (and more particularly the cathedral) are richly decorated. The population of the town is about 12,000; and, of the whole island, 70,000. Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, it lay concealed for many ages, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese in 1519; but others assert that it was first discovered in 1344 by Robert Machin, an Englishman, who, eloping with a young lady, landed with her on the island after a tempestuous voyage. Be that as it may, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still its masters. Finding it little better than a thick forest, they

rendered the ground capable of cultivation, by setting fire to this wood ; and it is now so fertile as to produce wine and fruit in great abundance. It is less fruitful in corn, from the rocky nature of the soil. Sugar-canes used to thrive in it ; but they are not at present much cultivated. The inhabitants make excellent sweetmeats, and have the art of preserving citrons and oranges, and making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The little sugar they make is very fine, and has a fragrant odor. This indeed is said to be the first place in the west where that manufacture was set on foot ; whence it was carried to Brasil.

The climate of Madeira is very hot for a great part of the year, but is so far from being insalubrious, that invalids resort to it from other countries : and, notwithstanding its heat, it is remarkably free from venomous animals. It has a rainy season, which necessarily varies the temperature. Some years ago, a water-spout (as it was called), or a surcharged cloud, burst over the island, and swelled the rivulets to such an excess, that dreadful inundations ensued. The country, and the environs of the city, were ravaged by the torrents : houses and farms were washed away, and many lives were lost.—The natives are generally of a middle stature, and have dark or swarthy complexions. The peasants are hardy and active, while the gentry are prone to indolence. Persons of all ranks are sober ; but those of the higher class are addicted to *gourmandise*. The ladies are not remarkable for beauty ; but they are well-bred and polite, and some have even a striking elegance of manners. They are fond of music and dancing, without suffering those diversions to engross that time which is required for more useful objects and pursuits.

Leaving Madeira, 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, situated 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 St. Mary, St. Michael, Terceira, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered about the middle of the fifteenth century, by Joshua Vander-Berg, a Flemish merchant, who, in a voyage to Lisbon, was, by stress of weather, driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants. On his arrival at Lisbon, he boasted of his discovery ; on which the Portuguese set sail immediately, and took possession of them. They were called the Azores, from the great number of hawks found among them. All these islands enjoy a serene sky, with a salubrious air, but are exposed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently suffered ; as they have also by inundations of the surrounding waves. They are fertile in corn, wine, and fruit ; they also abound in cattle, fowls, &c.

St. Michael is the largest, being nearly 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants ; but Terceira is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious and has good anchorage, though it is exposed to the south-east wind. Its capital, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the residence of the governor, as well as of the bishop.

Among the natural curiosities of the Azores, may be mentioned a remarkable mountain in Fayal, at the top of which is one of the most perfect basins ever formed, said to be three quarters of a mile in circuit, and 600 feet deep, with two lakes at the bottom. The coast is surrounded

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by black rocks of lava.—In the island of St. Michael are sulphureous springs, which are used as warm baths for the cure of the rheumatism, while some cold mineral waters in the same neighbourhood are taken internally. The valley, in which the *caldeiras* or hot springs are found, is covered with sulphur, alum, and pumice-stone, and is called *Boca do Inferno*, or the Mouth of Hell.

AMERICA.

WE now proceed to treat of a country of vast extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of art, owes in some respects more to that of nature than any other division of the globe. The particular circumstances of this country require that we should vary our plan, and, before we describe its present state, afford some information with regard to its discovery.

Near the close of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe which owed their support to commerce. An interference of interests produced rivalry; but in traffic Venice was much superior. She engrossed the 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 Latinised name, Columbus), a native of Genoa, whose knowledge of the true figure of the earth was far superior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, conceived a project of sailing to India by a bold and unknown route, and of opening to his country a new source of opulence and power. This proposal, however, 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 applied to the court of France; but, according to the practice of that people, he was coolly ridicued. The English court was his next resort; yet, if he had sufficiently known the character of the base and mercenary Henry VII., he would have concluded that the cautious politics of that prince were the most opposite imaginable to a scheme of a precarious nature. 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: they had no idea of venturing boldly into the open sea. These disappointments did not discourage him, as he was inspired with that noble enthusiasm which always animates an original genius. Spain was now his only resource; and there, after eight years' attendance, he succeeded, chiefly through the interest of queen Isabella. He set sail, in 1492, with 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 many 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 on the point of forsaking him. His sailors,

always discontented, now broke out into open mutiny, and insisted on their return: but his firmness, and much more the discovery of land, after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. He first landed on one of the Bahama islands; but, to his surprise and sorrow, he discovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that this spot could not belong to the country which he sought. 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 ensured his favorable reception at home) promising 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, he returned to Spain to procure the necessary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona. Columbus traveled thither from Seville, amidst the acclamations of the people, attended by some of the inhabitants, the gold, arms, utensils, and ornaments, of the fine country which 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 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, the appellation of the *West Indies* being given to the country by all the people of Europe.

Thus were the West Indies discovered by seeking a passage to the East, and, even after the discovery, were 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. Seventeen vessels were quickly prepared; all the necessaries for conquest or discovery were embarked; 1500 men, among whom were some of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the most ample authority. He sailed to 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 labored to establish this colony, with as much zeal and assiduity as if his views had extended no farther, he 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 he knew not whether it was an island, or a part of some great continent. To ascertain this point was the present object of his attention. In coasting along the southern shore of Cuba, he was entangled in a multitude of islands; and, in the same voyage, Jamaica was discovered. But to so many difficulties was he exposed, on an unknown sea, among rocks, shelves, and sands, that he returned to Hispaniola without learning any thing certain with regard to Cuba.

As his success excited jealousy and envy, he was obliged to re-appear in Spain for the defence of that reputation which was assailed by the voice of calumny; and it was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to enter upon a third expedition. He intended to steer to the southward of the Canaries until he should reach the equi-

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noctial line, and then to proceed directly westward, that he might discover what opening that might afford to India, or what new islands or continent might reward his labor. After being long buried in a thick fog, and suffering great inconvenience from the excessive heat and rain between the tropics, the navigators were favored with a brisk gale, and went before it seventeen days to the westward. A seaman then saw land, which was an island, now called Trinidad. Having passed this island, and two others which lie in the mouth of the Orinoco, the admiral was surprised at an appearance which he had never before witnessed: this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occasioned by a conflict between the tide of the sea and the rapid current of the river. 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 imagined that he had discovered the continent. When he left the river, and found that the land continued on the westward to a considerable distance, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this discovery, he yielded to the uneasiness and distress of his crew, and sailed to Hispaniola.

About this time the spirit of discovery spread itself widely, and many adventurers in various parts of Europe wished to acquire the reputation of Columbus, without possessing his abilities. The Portuguese discovered Brasil, which long formed the most valuable part of their possessions: Cabot, a native of Bristol, surveyed a part of that country which afterwards composed the British empire in North-America: and Americo Vespuccio, a merchant of Florence, sailed to the southern continent of America, and, being a man of address, had the honor of giving his name to the new world. But no one is now imposed on by the name; all know that Columbus, or Colon, was the first discoverer. To be deprived of the honor of giving name to such an immense territory was one of the smallest mortifications to which this great man was compelled to submit; for such were the clamors of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that, after discovering the continent, and making settlements on the islands, of America, he was treated like a traitor, and brought back to Europe in irons. He enjoyed, however, the glory of rendering one half of the world known to the other; a glory so much the more precious, as it was untainted by that spirit of cruelty and rapine 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 favor, and, after another voyage, not particularly memorable, 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 situated; 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 a part of their treasure. In a few years they depopulated Hispaniola, which is said to have contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, which had about 600,000. Bartholemew 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 burned in their habitations. The Spaniards had hitherto only had a glimpse of the continent. From

what they saw, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a still more valuable conquest. Cortez was despatched from Cuba in 1519, 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 people passionately fond of war, and then headed by Motezuma, 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 had subsisted for ages, and its inhabitants were rather polished and intelligent than rude and barbarous. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, that the year consisted nearly of 365 days. Their superiority, in military affairs, was the object of admiration and terror over the continent; and their government, founded on the sure basis of laws combined with religion, seemed to bid defiance to time itself. The capital, situated in the middle of a spacious lake, was the noblest monument of American industry. It communicated with the continent by immense causeys, 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 Motezuma. 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. 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 people. Where-ever the invaders 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 the success of opposition, entered into their alliance. Cortez, thus reinforced, advanced toward Mexico; and, in his march, discovered a volcano of sulphur and salt-petre, whence he could supply himself with powder. Motezuma heard of his progress without daring to oppose it; and, by sending a rich present of gold, which only excited the avarice of the Spaniards, he hastened their approach. No resistance was made to their entry into his capital. A palace was appropriated to Cortez, who had good reason, however, to distrust the affected politeness of the emperor, under which he suspected that some plot for his destruction was concealed; but he had no pretence for violence. Motezuma loaded him with kindness, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded; but, at last, a circumstance occurred, which afforded him a pretext for hostilities. In order to secure a communication by sea for the necessary reinforcements, he left a small garrison at Vera Cruz. 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 Motezuma was privy to this violence, and had issued orders that the head of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to destroy the prevailing belief of the immortality of the Europeans. He now, with some of his officers, visited the emperor; and, by artful persuasion, and the influence of determined courage over weakness of mind and timidity, prevailed upon a powerful prince to put himself into the hands of a small party of invaders, who, while they aimed at his ruin, professed for him great friendship and regard. In a tumult which soon after arose, when the captive prince seemed to side with 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 immediately

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ected Guatimozin for their sovereign, who, from the beginning, discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct, they 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 tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, beside 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, now made strenuous efforts for independence; but all their valor, and despair itself, gave way to what they called the Spanish thunder. Guatimozin and the empress were made prisoners. This was the prince who, when he was stretched on burning coals, that he might be forced to discover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, said to his high-priest, who was condemned to the same punishment, and who loudly expressed his sense of the pain that he endured, "Do you imagine that 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.

While Cortez and his soldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they obtained intelligence of another great empire, which was said to abound in gold and silver, and precious stones. This was the empire of Peru, the only other country in America that deserved the name of a civilised kingdom. The task of subduing this territory was undertaken by Francis Pizarro, a low adventurer, who was assisted by the pecuniary contributions of Lucques, an opulent priest. He commenced the enterprise with only 310 men, and twelve small pieces of artillery. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the same prejudices with the Mexicans, in favor of the Spanish nation, and were, beside, of a character still more soft and unwarlike, we shall not be greatly surprised, after what has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that, with this inconsiderable force, Pizarro should make a deep impression on the empire. There were particular circumstances likewise, which conspired to assist him, and which, as they disclose some traces 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 this monarchy. 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 were naturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the sun. He pretended, therefore, to descend from that luminary, whose worship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled to bear. By this romantic story 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 sovereigns succeeded Mango, distinguished by the title of Yncas. The twelfth prince was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guiana Capac, had

conquered the province of Quito: to secure himself in the possession, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and from this marriage sprang Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Huescar, by 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 connexion. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favor of Atabalipa, who detained Huescar as a prisoner. 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 with the appearance of the Spaniards. In these circumstances, Atabalipa, instead of opposing the invaders, endeavoured to secure their favor. Pizarro, however, whose temper partook of the meanness of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with those whom he called barbarians, but who, though less acquainted with the cruel art of destroying their fellow-creatures, were more civilised than himself. While he was engaged in a conference with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked the guards of that prince, and, having murdered 3000 of them, as they were pressing forward to defend the sacred person of their monarch, seized Atabalipa himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. That prince having offered a large sum for his liberty, Pizarro was treating with him on the subject, when Almagro, who was at first his principal associate, interfered in an authoritative manner, and claimed a moiety of the ransom. That the common cause might not suffer by a rupture between the chiefs, this arrangement was agreed to. The ransom was paid without delay,—a sum exceeding their conception, but not sufficient to gratify their avarice. It amounted to 1,500,000*l.* sterling, and, even after the large deductions which were made for the king, for the two rival commanders, and the officers, each private soldier had above 2000*l.* With such fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would readily submit to the rigors of military discipline. They insisted on being disbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labor in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand, concluding that avarice would still detain a number in his army, and that the return of many who had been thus enriched would induce new adventurers to pursue the same plan for acquiring gold.

The magnitude of this ransom was only an additional reason for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until it was discovered whether he had another treasure to gratify the avarice of the Spaniards. But, whether they believed that he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince from whom they expected no farther advantage; or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion to him, 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. A contest for the succession led to a civil war; the battles which ensued 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. The losses which the invaders met with in these quarrels, though inconsiderable in themselves, were rendered dangerous, by lessening the opinion of their invincibility. This consideration engaged

Pizarro to conclude the foundations of a new country. But, and, after many

While he was arrived from Spain the sea-coast, the Almagro 200 leagues division occasioned within his own nation. He persuaded him lay to the sea in riches, and made assistance in the question.

Almagro, therefore, listened to his own as he judged difficult, into the care of an immense power, a very common become too wide division of the capital, in which considerable difficulties, however, had relinquishing a grand objects of slaughter of the he was unwilling army, and kneeling occasioned a loss of fortune were the fate of the Almagro, who

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Pizarro to conclude a truce; and he employed the interval in laying the foundations of the city of Lima, and in settling the Spaniards in the country. But, as soon as an opportunity offered, he renewed the war, and, after many difficulties, made himself master of Cusco.

While he was engaged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained a territory of 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 effected a reconciliation. He persuaded his rival that the country which really belonged to him lay to the southward of Cusco, and that it was by no means 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 honor of subduing a kingdom for himself, listened to this advice; and, joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own as he judged necessary, he penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chilè, 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 that country. But the Peruvians had become too well 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 to a considerable distance, they were very nearly successful. The latter, however, had no sooner been informed of the siege of Cusco, than, relinquishing all views of distant conquest, he returned to secure the grand objects of their former labors. He raised the siege, with great 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 than 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, was sacrificed to the security of his rival.

Pizarro, not satisfied with his success, was still urged by his ambition to undertake new enterprises. The southern countries of America offered the richest conquest. Toward this quarter, the mountains of Potosi, abounding with silver, had been discovered. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chilè, 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 does not abound in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever since, neglected it. Pizarro, meeting with repeated success, and having no superior to control, no rival to keep him within bounds, now indulged 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. The partisans of old Almagro now declared his son their viceroy; but the greater part of the nation, though extremely well satisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not join in this declaration. They waited the orders of the king of Spain, who sent Vaca de 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 advantage-

ous footing, both for itself and 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, and tranquillity was restored to Peru. It seems, however, that Castro had not been sufficiently skilled in gaining the favor of the Spanish statesmen, by proper bribes or promises, which a ministry would always expect from the governor of so rich a country. By their advice counsellors were sent over to control Castro, and the colony was again unsettled. Party-spirit began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo Pizarro set himself at the head of his brother's partisans, with whom many new malcontents were 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 himself daily, and even went so far as to decapitate a governor who was sent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the Spanish admiral in the South Sea, by whose means he proposed to obstruct the landing of any troops from Spain; and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the state of affairs, when the court of Spain, sensible of its error in not sending into America men whose character and virtue only, and not cabal, pleaded in their behalf, despatched, 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 disinterested spirit. All 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 connexions; the admiral was gained over by insinuation to return to his duty; and a full pardon was offered to Pizarro himself, provided that he would return to his allegiance. But so intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that he was inclined to incur every hazard, rather than submit to any officer of Spain. With those, therefore, who continued to adhere to his interest, he risked a battle, in which he was defeated and captured. His execution soon followed; and thus the brother of him who had conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a sacrifice for the security of the Spanish dominion over that country.

OF THE ORIGINAL INHABITANTS OF AMERICA.

THE discovery of America 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 was disposed to trace the characters of men under various degrees of refinement, and to observe the movements of the human heart, or the operations of the understanding, when untutored by science, and untainted by corruption. So striking seemed the disparity between the inhabitants of Europe and the natives of America, that some speculative men ventured to affirm, that it was impossible they should be of the same species, or derived from one common source. This, however, was an ill-founded conclusion. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to the different degrees of improvement at which they have arrived, the manner in which they acquire the necessities of life, the force of custom and habit, and other circumstances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced

under any general name. They were discovered among the mountains of the Atlantic, they were distinguished from the rest of the world by their call barbarians, and by their want of balance and nobleness of mind. Peru and Mexico were the most every where. They were very sparingly acquired the manner of their mountains gave a strength to the same cause. Rays of the sun were proportioned. Heads flatfish, but their countenances as that of a horse among them, and their character and modes of life. Their precarious subsistence was engaged in war, and much gaiety of mind in general, gratified which is observed. Ignorant of the world in conversation they had some words, and even natural to men to them were entirely on what honor, and even attention to the subject to attach wherever they were abundant. They did not possess reason, very smart, arts, agriculture, individuals, who small tribes in the desert frontier, boundless for Liberty was government, and than by the from despising wisdom, which under the banner learned to be engaged in because the

under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be discovered among them all, notwithstanding the various shades which distinguish one nation from another.

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 call barbarism, but which, however, was a state of honest independence and noble simplicity. Except the inhabitants of the empires of Peru and Mexico, the natives of America were unacquainted with almost every European art; even agriculture 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 gave a strength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The same cause, perhaps, rendered their bodies, in general, where the rays of the sun were not too violent, uncommonly straight and well-proportioned. Their muscles were firm and strong; their bodies and heads flattish, which was the effect of art; their features were regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse. The color of their skin was a reddish-brown, admired among them, and heightened by the constant use of bear's fat and paint. Their characters were altogether founded upon their circumstances and modes of life. A people constantly employed in procuring the means of precarious subsistence, who lived by the chase, and were generally engaged in war with their neighbours, could not be supposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or a high flow of spirits. They were, therefore, in general, grave even to sadness; they had not that giddy vivacity which is observed among some nations in Europe, and they despised it. Ignorant of the arts of amusement, of which that of agreeable trifling in conversation is one of the most considerable, they only spoke when they had something important to communicate; and all their actions, words, and even looks, were attended with some meaning. This was natural to men who were almost continually engaged in pursuits which to them were of the highest importance. Their subsistence depended entirely on what they procured with their hands; and their lives, their honor, and every thing dear to them, might be lost by the smallest intention to the designs of their enemies. As they had no particular object to attach them to one place rather than to another, they hastened wherever they expected to find the necessaries of life in the greatest abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they did not possess. The different tribes or nations were, for the same reason, very 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 mutually useful. These small tribes lived at an immense distance; they were separated by a desert frontier, and concealed in the bosom of impenetrable and almost boundless forests.

Liberty was the prevailing passion of the Americans; and their government, under the influence of this sentiment, was better secured than by the wisest political regulations. They were very far, however, from despising all sorts of authority; they were attentive to the voice of wisdom, which experience had conferred on the aged; and they enlisted under the banners of the chief, in whose valor and address they had learned to repose their confidence. Among those tribes which were most engaged in war, the power of the chief was naturally predominant, because the idea of having a military leader was the first source of his

superiority, and the frequent exigencies of the state, requiring such a leader, continued to support and even to enhance it. His power, however, was rather persuasive than coercive; he was revered as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He had no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice; and one act of ill-judged violence would deprive him of his authority. Among some tribes, a species of aristocracy prevailed, the elders having the chief away; while in several communities a kind of hereditary nobility existed, whose influence surpassed that of the elders. Public business was conducted with the utmost simplicity, such as might recall, to those who are acquainted with antiquity, a picture of the most early ages. The heads of families met in a house or cabin appointed for the purpose. Here the affairs of the tribe were discussed; and here those who were distinguished by eloquence or wisdom had an opportunity of displaying their talents. The orators, like those of Homer, spoke in a bold figurative style, with gestures apparently violent, but often very natural and expressive. When the business was over, and they happened to be well provided with food, they appointed a general feast upon the occasion. The feast was accompanied with songs, in which the real or fabulous exploits of their progenitors were celebrated; and dancing was also a part of the festivity.

War and the chase were the only employments of the men; every other concern was left to the women. The most common motive for entering into a war, was, either to revenge the death of some lost friend, or to acquire prisoners. These wars were either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case, all the young men who were disposed to go out to battle (for no one was compelled) gave a piece of wood to the chief, as a token of their intention of accompanying him. The chief, who was to conduct them, fasted several days, during which he conversed with no one, and was particularly careful to observe his dreams, which the presumption natural to savages generally rendered as favorable as he could desire. Other superstitions and ceremonies were observed. One was, to place the war-kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they were going out to devour their enemies; which, among some nations, might formerly have been the case. Then they despatched a large shell to their allies, inviting them to come and drink the blood of their enemies. They were of opinion 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 carried their friendships or their resentments so far as they did: and this is what might be expected from their peculiar circumstances; for that principle in human nature, which is the spring of the social affections, acts with the greater force the more it is restrained. The Americans, who lived in small societies, seeing few objects and few persons, became wonderfully attached to those objects and persons, and could not be deprived of them without feeling themselves miserable. Their ideas were too confined, their breasts too narrow, to entertain the sentiments of general benevolence, or even of ordinary humanity. But this very circumstance, while it rendered them cruel to an incredible degree toward those with whom they were at war, added a new force to their particular friendships, and to the common tie which united the members of the same tribe, or those different tribes which were in alliance.

Their wars were conducted with great art and address. The great qualities in their warriors were vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprise; and in these they were superior to other nations. As

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they were accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, as their perceptions were sharpened by keen necessity, and as they lived in every respect according to nature, their external senses had a high degree of acuteness. They could trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smoke of their fires, which they could smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they could count and distinguish with the utmost facility. This, however, gave them no superiority, because their enemies were equally skilful. When they went out, therefore, they took care to avoid making use of any thing by which they might incur the danger of a discovery. They lighted no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals; they lay close to the ground all day, and traveled only in the night; and, as they marched along in files, he who closed the rear diligently covered with leaves the tracks of the feet. In this manner they entered unawares the villages of their foes; and, while the flower of the nation were engaged in hunting, used to massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, making prisoners only those who had strength enough to be useful to their nation. On the other hand, when they found the hostile tribe approaching, they would throw themselves among bushes for the purpose of temporary concealment, and suddenly rise with tremendous shouts, and rush with the utmost fury into the conflict. When victorious, they would insult over the dead bodies, tear the scalp from the head, wallow like beasts in the blood, and sometimes even devour the flesh. They frequently treated their captives with the most horrible cruelty. Fixing upon one who had killed many of their friends in the battle, and whom no family would adopt, they tied him to a stake, began to torture him at the extremity of his body, and gradually approached the more vital parts. One plucked out his nails by the roots, one by one; another took a finger into his mouth, and tore the flesh off with his teeth; a third thrust the finger, mangled as it was, into the bowl of a pipe, made red-hot, which he smoked like tobacco: then they bruised the toes and fingers between stones; they pulled off the flesh from the teeth, cut circles about his joints, and made gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they seared immediately with red-hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately; they pulled off this flesh, 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 had thus torn off the flesh, they twisted the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, while others were employed in pulling and extending the limbs in every way that could increase the torment. This was continued often for five or six hours. They occasionally unbound him to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they should inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety and excess of torments, would sometimes fall into so profound a sleep, that they were obliged to apply the fire to awake him and renew his sufferings. They would then stick him all over with small matches, that easily took fire, but burned slowly; they would run sharp reeds into every part of his body, drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, when they had burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires, had so mangled the body that it exhibited the appearance of a continued wound, had mutilated his face in such a manner, that it seemed to have nothing human about it, had peeled the skin from the head, and poured red-hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull, they would unbind the wretch, who, blind and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted on every side with

clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, would run hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, put an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than Furies, would even outdo the men in this scene of horror, while the principal persons of the country sat 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, would smoke too, appear unconcerned, and converse with his tormentors about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there seemed to be a contest, which should exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmness and constancy almost super-human: not a groan, a sigh, or a distortion of countenance, would escape him; he would recount his own exploits, inform them what cruelties he had inflicted upon their countrymen, and threaten them with the revenge that would attend his death; and, though his reproaches exasperated them to the utmost rage, he would confine his insults even for their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquisite methods, and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted.

This resentful and malignant barbarity did not preclude, in the ordinary concerns of life, the greatest warmth of social kindness. To those who lived in the same district, or were in alliance with the tribe, the most friendly regard was shown: and, if any one had been unsuccessful in the chase, or had met with any misfortune, he felt no other effect from it, than that it gave him an opportunity of experiencing the benevolence and attachment of his neighbours and allies.

The feast of the dead,—a periodical solemnity among the savages,—exhibited the force of their friendship. All who had died during the last eight or ten years were taken out of their graves, and conveyed to a particular spot, where many tribes assembled to testify their sorrow. The bodies were cleansed, as far as it was possible to purify them; the separated bones were preserved with religious care; and, after a feast, in which no mirth prevailed, a re-interment took place.

These practices and ceremonies are not so habitual as they formerly were. European connexions have had some effect both in softening the cruelty of the savages, and in weakening the force of their unsophisticated feelings. They are still inhuman to their captives, but not to the same extent of brutal ferocity; and they are still friendly and grateful, though not to that romantic excess in which they formerly indulged.

Their religious feelings claim some notice. The god of war is revered by most of their tribes. Him they invoke before they go into the field; and, as his disposition may be more or less favorable to them, they conclude that they shall be more or less successful. Some tribes worship the sun or moon; among others there are various traditions relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods; traditions which, while they resemble the Grecian fables, are still more absurd and inconsistent. But religion is not the prevailing character of these barbarians; 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. The ministers of those beings are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These men are supposed to be inspired by the good *genii*, most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future

events; they be informed b manner they their system the same rem of which is soaked with him from the coarse meth cures. The efficacy; an plication of magical cere

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events; they are called to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed by the spirits 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 vapor and his own perspiration. 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 remarkable 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 each remedy is attributed to the magical ceremonies which form a part of the process.

It should be observed by the reader, that the particulars which have been mentioned, relate to the natives of North-America. On the first appearance of the inhabitants of the New World, their discoverers also found those of the south to be, in several particulars, very unlike the generality of the people of the ancient hemisphere. They were different in their features and complexions; 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 sank 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 surprised at 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 strangers 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 natives 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 confined their industry to the production of 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 the north, are generally more feeble in their frames, less vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a gentle and dastardly spirit, more enslaved by pleasure, and more addicted to indolence.

A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA.

THIS great western continent extends about 9000 miles in length and 4000 in breadth, 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, by which it is separated from Asia. It is composed of two great continents, one on the north, the other on the south, joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a kind of isthmus 1450 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, so narrow, as to make the communication between the oceans by no means difficult, being only sixty miles across. In the great gulf which is formed between the isthmus and the northern and southern continents, a multitude of islands are found, many of them large, most of them fertile, and denominated the West Indies, in con-

tr-distinction to the countries and islands of Asia beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the East Indies.

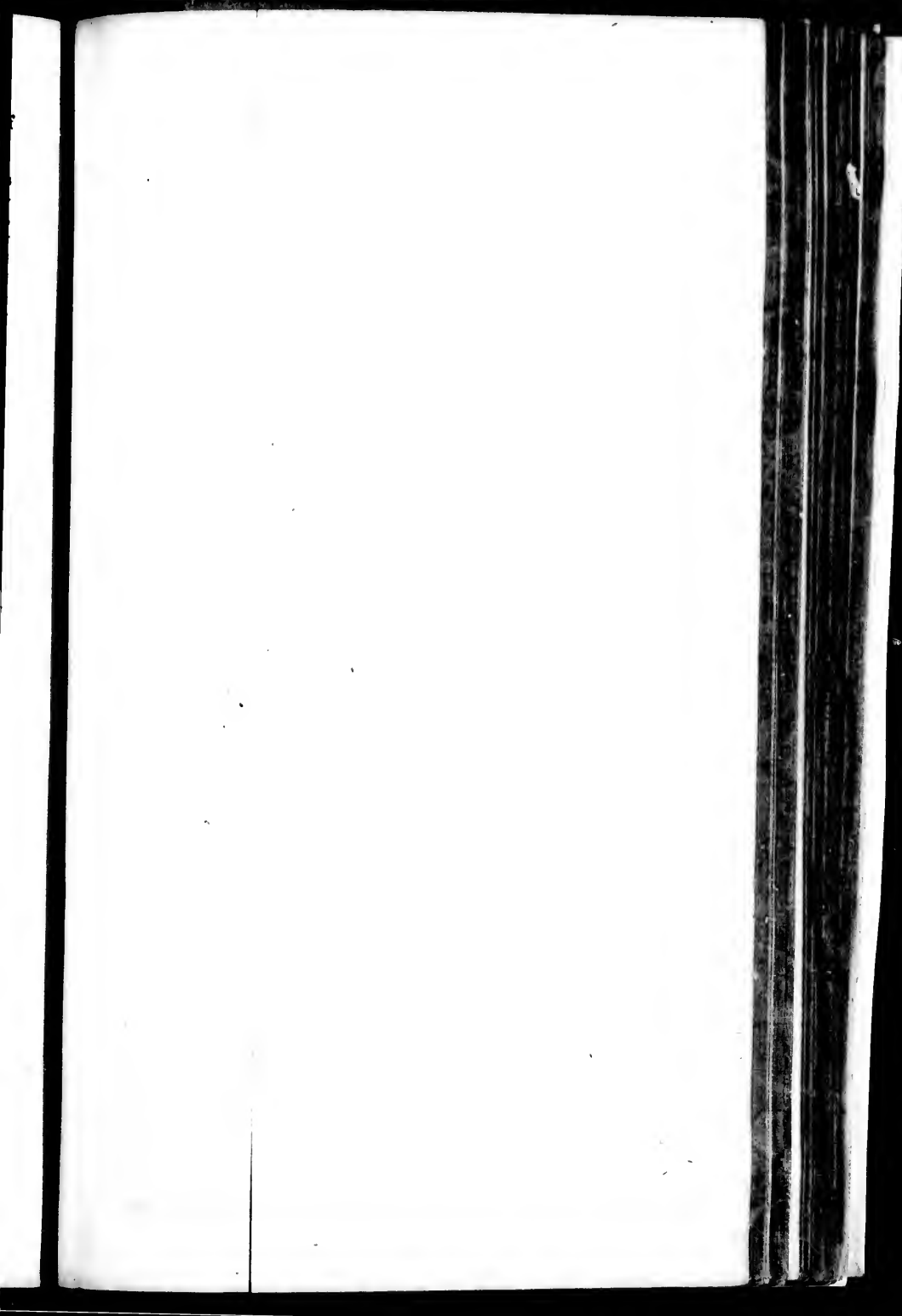
Before we proceed to treat of separate countries in their order, it will be proper to take notice of those mountains and rivers which disdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular kingdoms or provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. America is not, in general, a mountainous country; yet it has some mountains of stupendous height. The Andes exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe: extending from the isthmus of Darien to the strait of Magellan, they divide the whole southern part of America, and run a length of more than 4000 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length. Chimborazo rises to 21,000 feet; and its summit is always covered with snow. Compared with the Andes, the North-American mountains, though in some parts very high, are insignificant.

America is, without question, that part of the globe which is best watered, not only for the support of life, and all the purposes of fertility, but for the convenience of intercourse and traffic. In North-America, those vast tracts of country, situated beyond the Apalachian mountains, are watered by spacious lakes, which not only communicate with each other, but give rise to several great rivers, that receive many others in their course. These streams, spreading over an immense space, lay open the inmost recesses of this great continent, and afford such an inlet for commerce, as must produce the greatest advantages, whenever the country adjacent shall be fully inhabited by an industrious and civilised people. The eastern side of North-America also possesses many rivers of great depth, length, and commodious navigation. South-America is, in this respect, equally fortunate. It enjoys the river of Amazons, the Rio de la Plata, the Orinoco, and many other noble streams.

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, and trees, which are found 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 metals, that they have become much 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.

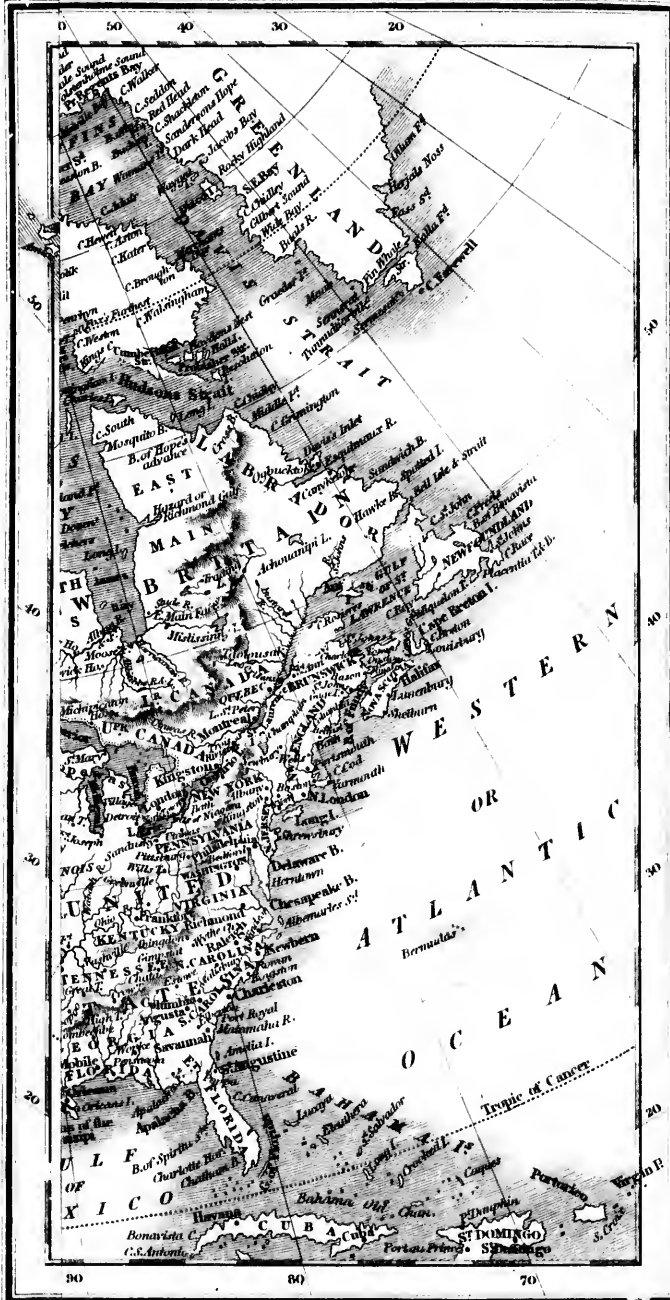
This country also produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other valuable stones, which, by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewise to lower their value. To these may be added a great number of commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use; as, cochineal, indigo, log-wood, red-wood, fustic, *lignum vite*, rice, ginger, cacao or the chocolate-nut, sugar, cotton, tobacco, the Peruvian bark, a variety of balsams, and many other articles of traffic, to some of which we were entire strangers, while we were obliged to purchase others at an extravagant rate from Asia and Africa.

With respect to the quadrupeds of this new world, it may be observed in general, that they are less than those of the old; even such as are carried hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, and are rarely, if ever, seen to improve. If, with respect to size, we should compare the animals of the new and the old world, we shall find one very disproportioned to the other. The American wild beasts seem to be divested of that courage which is so often fatal to man in Africa or Asia. The cougar and the jaguar, indeed, are sometimes fierce and









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mischievous; but they are despicable animals in comparison with the lion of Africa, and the tiger of Asia. All the animals in the southern parts of America seem to be different from those of the southern parts of the ancient continent; nor do there appear to be any common to both, but those which, being able to bear the cold of the north, have passed 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 of Russia, while the lion and 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 prevails through nature, and evidently points out the wisdom of its Author, that the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. The goat, exported from Europe to South America, dwindles in a few generations; but it becomes at the same time more prolific; and, instead of one kid at a time, or two at the most, generally produces five or six. 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 savages still live in the quiet possession of many large tracts, America is chiefly claimed by the people of the new states, by the English, and the United States; and the West-Indian islands are divided among the Spaniards, English, and French. The Dutch indeed possess several small islands, which in any other hands would be of no consequence; and the Danes have three; but they hardly deserve to be named among the proprietors of America.

A summary View of the successive Settlements of NORTH-AMERICA.

<i>Names of Countries.</i>	<i>When settled.</i>	<i>By whom.</i>
Greenland	984	By the Icelanders.
Mexico	1521	By the Spaniards.
Virginia..... May 13	1607	By Christopher Newport.
Quebec	1608	By the French.
Newfoundland, June	1610	By John Guy.
New York } New Jersey }	about 1614	By the Dutch.
Plymouth	1620	} By a part of Mr. Robinson's congregation. By a small English colony, near the mouth of the Piscataqua.
New Hampshire.....	1623	
Delaware } Pennsylvania } 1627	} By the Swedes and Finlanders.
Massachuset-Bay	1628	
Maryland	1633	} By a colony of Roman-catholics, under lord Baltimore.
Connecticut	1635	
Rhode Island.....	1635	} By Mr. Fenwick. By Mr. Roger Williams, and his persecuted brethren.
New Jersey	1664	
		} Granted to the duke of York by Charles II. but settled some time before this by the English.

South Carolina	1669	By governor Sale
California	1679	By the Spaniards.
Pennsylvania	1681	By W. Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
Louisiana	1699	By French adventurers.
North Carolina	1729	} Erected into a separate government, but settled before by the English.
Georgia	1732	
Kentucky	1773	By colonel Daniel Boon.
Vermont	1777	} By emigrants from Connecticut, and other parts of New England.
Territory N. W. of the Ohio river	} 1787	
Indiana		1795
Tennessee	1796	By emigrants from North Carolina.

From the year 1817 to the present time, the Missisipi territory and other spacious countries to the west of the United States have been successively added to the territories of that republic as federal states.

THE GRAND DIVISIONS OF NORTH AMERICA.

Countries.	Len.	Brea.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Belonging to
New Britain	1050	1000	400,000			Great Brit.
Canada	750	475	130,000	Quebec		Ditto
New Scotland. } New Brunswick }	350	250	57,000	Halifax St. Anne's		Ditto
United States of North-America. }	1300	1100	950,000	Washington	3600 SW.	
Mexico, includ- ing California }	2000	1250	580,000	Mexico	4800 SW.	Independent
Guatemala	650	500	100,000	New-Gua- temala }	4650 SW.	Independent

GRAND DIVISIONS OF SOUTH AMERICA.

Countries.	Len.	Brea.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Belonging to
Colombia	1300	1050	550,000	Bogota	4500 SW.	Independent
Peru	1400	450	675,000	Lima	5000 SW.	Independent
Amazonia, a very extensive country, little known to the Europeans.						
Guiana	300	450	230,000	belonging to various Powers.		
Brazil	2150	1000	890,000	St. Sebastian	6000 S W.	Independent
Paraguay or La Plata	1550	900	700,000	Buenos-Ayres	6040 SW.	Independent
Chile	1220	230	280,000	Sant-Iago	6600 SW.	
Terra Magella- nica or Pata- gonia	700	300	200,000			Left to the Natives.

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The principal islands of North-America are, Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John's in the Gulf of St. Laurence; the West-Indian groupe, between North and South America, the Bermuda and Bahama isles in the Atlantic.

GREENLAND.

THIS extensive country, though it has been said to belong properly neither to America nor to Europe, ought certainly to be referred to the former continent, whether it be an island, or united to the main land to the north of Baffin's Bay, by which it is bounded on the west. To the south it terminates in a point called Cape Farewell; 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 not yet ascertained.

The climate of this country is extremely severe, the greater part of it being generally covered with ice and snow. Among the vegetables which it produces 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, have come to maturity. The stunted trees are the juniper, willow, and birch. The animals are white hares, foxes, reindeer, and white bears, which last 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 its bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber which it affords. This animal is usually between sixty and eighty feet in length; its tongue is about eighteen feet long, enclosed in long pieces of what is called whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horse-hair; and on each side of the tongue are 250 pieces of this whalebone: the bones of its body are as hard as those of an ox, and of no use. A number of ships, chiefly English and Dutch, are annually employed in the whale-fishery. When a whale appears, the boats are sent out, of which each ship has four or five, carrying six or eight men; and the person who stands at the head of the boat, strikes the creature with his harpoon or barbed dart. Finding itself wounded, it dives down into the deep with such velocity of motion, that, to prevent the wood of the boat from taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope against the side of it, one man is constantly employed in wetting it. After the whale has run some hundred fathoms, it is forced to come up again for air, when it spouts out the water with a tremendous noise. On its emerging, the process of harpooning is repeated; and the vital parts of the raging victim are pierced with spears, until streams of blood are spouted out. The boats follow for some miles, and at last the dying animal turns itself upon its back, and is drawn to the shore, or to the ship if the land be at a great distance: there they cut the huge body 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.

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 truly stupendous,

and, when illuminated by the sun's rays, dazzling and beautiful. Their splendor 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 above 20 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.

The Greenlanders are low of stature, few exceeding five feet in height. Their faces are broad, eyes small, noses flat, and lips thick. Their hair is long, straight and black; 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 burthens from their early years. They are very light and agile, and can also use their hands with much skill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers; but they are good-humored, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their food principally consists of 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: it would be accounted beneath their dignity even to draw out the fish upon the shore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and act as carriers, shoemakers, and tailors. They 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; yet, in the longest summer-days, the weather is said to be so hot, from the long continuance of the sun's rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their summer garments.

One Gunnbeorn, an Icelander, who had been driven out to sea in a storm, discovered Greenland, and, on his return, made a favorable report of the country, as neither too distant nor too inhospitable for colonisation; but no attempts were made to plant it, or to take possession of it, before Eirik the Red, in 982, proceeded thither on a voyage of exploration. He surveyed the coast and examined the country during two years, and then returned to Iceland, where he prevailed upon as many of his countrymen as filled twenty-five small vessels to put themselves under his direction. Of these only fourteen reached the spot where he fixed the cradle of his colony. Settlements were multiplied along the coast; churches were built, and a man of learning and merit was appointed to direct the ecclesiastical concerns of the new establishment. This prelate resided at Gardè; and, under him and his successors, the church continued to flourish. A regular intercourse, friendly and commercial, was maintained with Denmark or Norway until the year 1406. The accumulation of ice then obstructed the continuance of correspondence; and the colony was neglected, if not forgotten. At length, in 1720, 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, he 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, which were chiefly formed in the south-western part of the country.

EAST GREENLAND, or SPITSBERGEN, was long considered as a part of West or Old Greenland; but it 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 disco-

vered, according to others supposed the name of ruggedness of from north to American Greenland same appearance. The Russian of the islands.

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vered, 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 Spitsbergen (or Craggy Mountains) from the height and ruggedness of its rocks. The principal island is about 300 miles in length from north to south. The products are nearly the same with those of the American Greenland. The mountains and islands of ice present the same appearance; and the whale-fishery is carried on along the coast. The Russians claim this dreary country, and have settlements on some of the islands.

As it was reported, by some of the mariners who were employed in the whale-fishery of Greenland and Davis' Strait, that the northern seas were less clogged with ice, than they had been for a whole previous century, the British ministers, in a time of full peace, directed their attention to the discovery of a passage to the Pacific Ocean by the north. Four vessels were equipped for that purpose, fortified with an additional coat of oak plank, and strengthened within by many transverse beams, to resist the pressure of ice; their bows were covered with strong plates of iron; and extraordinary accommodations of every kind were provided for the bold adventurers who were to man them. The Isabella and Alexander were sent to Baffin's-Bay, under the command of captain Ross, and the Dorothea and Trent more directly to the northward, under Buchan. They reached the Shetland isles in the spring of the year 1818, and a separation then ensued. When the two first ships had passed the sixtieth degree of latitude, they met with many icebergs, which appeared like immense rocks of white marble rising out of the sea. They at length approached the coast of Greenland, and were visited by many of the natives, who were clad in seal-skins, and came off in very long and narrow canoes made of the same kind of skins, sewed tightly together on a wooden frame, which they managed with great dexterity. When they reached Waygat island, it was found to be as sterile a spot as nature ever formed: yet the ruins of huts proved that it had been inhabited. Near Jacob's Bight, on the western coast, a Danish settlement was observed, and some of the natives were seen in sledges of fir, drawn by dogs. About the 76th degree, some of the inhabitants appeared, who, though seemingly of the same race with the other Greenlanders, did not know of the existence of any tribes to the southward, were unacquainted with the use of a canoe, and were lost in astonishment at the sight of the vessels. A species of whale, called the narwhal, or sea-unicorn, furnished them with bone and horn for various purposes; and they knew the use of iron, as it was found in the neighbourhood. Having little or no wood, they were uncommonly eager for the possession of it. They seemed to have an idea of the impropriety of theft; for one of them, having taken up a sledge-hammer which he found on board, threw it upon the ice, that he might run off with it; but, being pursued, he left it, and was ashamed to return. They were not so well clothed as the southern natives, from whom they differed also in having long beards.

In the spot where Baffin placed the Carey islands, captain Ross found a groupe, of which three were of considerable dimensions; and, in the nearest part of the continent, it was imagined that an opening appeared to the westward, which might lead to an important discovery: but, after a careless search, he altered his course to the south-west. Sir James Lancaster's sound seemed to excite strong hopes, from the swell and depth of the sea, the disappearance of ice, and the breadth of the inlet, supposed to be from ten to twelve leagues. The captain, however, fan-

cied that he could discern land at the end, and relinquished the search. In his southerly course, he sent a party on shore in the 74th degree of latitude; and the country, though uninhabited, seemed a less repulsive spot than any which had been seen in those parts. A wide stream of fresh water was found: its banks had a considerable stratum of soil; many shrubs and plants were observed, and limestone was seen in abundance.

In the voyage of captain Buchan, the first appearance of ice was near Cherry island, about 150 miles to the south-east of the Spitsbergen groupe. He then sailed to the west, in the hope of getting round to the north; but, his progress in the former direction being impeded by barriers of ice, he tried a direct northern course; and both ships were quickly surrounded by immense masses. For ten days they remained nearly stationary, before they were extricated from their perilous situation by partial openings of the ice, through which they forced their way. They soon after anchored in Fair-Haven, near Vogel-Sang, where they continued a week. On that and the neighbouring islands, numerous herds of rein-deer were observed, which, though it was near the end of June, had not entirely lost the whiteness of their winter dress. Resuming a northerly course, the vessels proceeded to the latitude of 80 degrees and a half, and were again blocked up. All hopes of advance were then abandoned, and the ships, rescued with extreme difficulty from the icy blockade, returned to England.

The ministry, not discouraged by these fruitless voyages, sent out captain Parry in 1819, for the purpose of exploration; but our account of the three voyages of that enterprising officer will be more properly reserved for the next head, as he greatly extended the boundaries of New Britain.

NEW BRITAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] On these heads we cannot speak with precision or accuracy, as the country is so little known. We shall merely observe that 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 on the north by a sea generally frozen and lands very imperfectly known; on the east by the Atlantic ocean; 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 chief bay is that of Hudson, and the principal straits are those of Hudson and Belleisle. The passage into Baffin's bay is called *Davis' Strait*; but it is too wide to be so called with propriety.

MOUNTAINS.] In the northern parts of this country are mountains covered with eternal snow: and the winds, blowing thence during three quarters of the year, occasion a degree of cold in the winter 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, and Nelson: all of which fall into Hudson's and James' bays from the west and south. The mouths of all these rivers are full of shoals, except the Churchill, in which the largest ships may

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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 is intensely 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. Almost every kind of European seed committed to the earth in this inhospitable climate has hitherto perished. This severity and long continuance of winter, and the barrenness of the earth occasioned by it, are experienced in the latitude of fifty-two,—in the temperate parallel of Cambridge.

ANIMALS.] These are the moose and rein-deer, bears, tigers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermines, wild cats, and hares. The birds are partridges, bustards, geese, ducks, and all kinds of wild fowl. The chief amphibious animal is the seal; and the fish are whales, cod, and a white fish preferable to a herring; and in the rivers and fresh waters are pike, perch, carp, and trout.

Almost all the quadrupeds of these countries are clothed with a close, soft, warm fur. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colors of animals. When that season is over, which continues for three months, they all assume the snowy livery of winter, and every sort of beast, and most of the fowls, are white. This is a surprising fact; but it is yet more astonishing, that the dogs and cats from England, which 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 originally had.

INHABITANTS.] The natives of this country are composed of different tribes; those of Labrador are called Esquimaux, or Iskimos. These appear to be 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 teeth, and black and rugged hair. They go well clothed in skins, principally of bears, and are said to be mild-tempered and docile. They seem to be the same people with the Greenlanders, and resemble the Laplanders and Samoieds of the north of Europe and Asia.

DISCOVERY.] In the hope of discovering a north-west passage to China, captain Frobisher sailed to North-America in 1576, and reached the coast of Labrador, but made little progress beyond that latitude. Davis, in 1585, sailed along the western coast of Greenland, gave his name to a large inland sea, and penetrated to the 72d degree of latitude, whence he would have proceeded to the westward, if he had not been stopped by masses of ice. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure; in 1607, 1608, and 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered a strait which led into a new Mediterranean (called however a bay), a great part of which he coasted; and his ardor for the discovery not

being abated by the difficulties with which he struggled in this empire of winter, and world of frost and snow, he remained there until the spring, and prepared to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships without the same spirits to support them, mutinied, seized him and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy sea in an open boat. He 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 to England.

The exploration of Hudson's Bay was followed, but not immediately, by the establishment of a company, authorised to form settlements and erect forts in the surrounding countries, and to carry on trade with the natives. This corporation still subsists, and the traffic is very considerable and productive. It was by the direction of the company that Mr. Hearne, in 1769, undertook a hazardous journey, with a view of discovering the northern limits of the American continent. He reached the mouth of a river, which derives its name from the copper-mines in the neighbourhood. He had then attained the 113th degree of western longitude, and the 70th of northern latitude: and it is evident that he had reached not merely an inland sea, but the Arctic ocean. He visited one of the mines, and observed that the copper was beaten out by the aid of fire and two stones, and that the natives, who were Esquimaux, had sufficient skill to make hatchets and knives of that metal. An equally adventurous expedition was undertaken by Mr. Mackenzie, who, in 1789, proceeded to the Great Slave Lake, whence he advanced to the north-west, on a river called by his name, as far as the sea, if we may give credit to his own account. In 1792, he renewed his bold researches, and actually traversed the continent to the east of the Pacific, observing with delight and surprise the beauties and curiosities of an unexplored country, of which some notice will be taken when we treat of the United States.

After a long discontinuance of exploration in this part of North-America, captain William Edward Parry sailed with two vessels and select crews to Davis' Strait. Being baffled in his attempt to penetrate the ice to the western coast near the entrance of that strait, he pushed forward to Baffin's Bay without obstruction, until he met with a formidable barrier of ice in the middle of it. Even this difficulty did not paralyse his efforts. He passed through the barrier, and reached Lancaster Sound, with all the confidence of hope, which, however, was checked for some days by the contrariety of the wind. An easterly breeze at length sprang up; the ships crowded all sail, rapidly passed several headlands, and entered the ARCTIC or POLAR SEA. In their progress, land was observed to the northward, consisting of a series of islands; and, after many obstructions, and a tedious navigation from fogs and ice, they arrived at an island to which the captain gave the name of Melville. Proceeding to the westward, they crossed, on the 4th of September, 1819, the meridian of 110 degrees west, in the latitude of 74 degrees and 44 minutes; and thus the bold adventurers became entitled to a parliamentary reward of 5000 pounds. Casting anchor in a roadstead, which Mr. Parry named (from the two ships) the bay of the Hecla and the Griper, he hoisted the ensigns and pendants; and (he says) "it created in us no ordinary feeling of pleasure, to see the British flag waving for the first time in these regions, which had hitherto been considered beyond the limits of the habitable part of the world." But this pleasure was damped by the consideration of the increasing dangers and difficulties attendant on a continuance of the voyage to the westward. The rapid formation of the ice, the shortness

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of the day-light, and the effects which the crew of the Griper, forced on shore by the ice, began to feel from the efforts constantly necessary to work her, compelled the captain to turn his thoughts to the providing of water-quarters, for which he fixed on the eastern side of Melville Island. The labor of cutting a canal through very thick ice, in order to place the ships in a state of safety for the winter, may be imagined by our readers, when they are informed that its length was 4082 yards. The ships at last were securely barbour'd, and the men made up their minds for the endurance of such a winter and such privations as they had never before experienced. A wooden housing was erected over each ship, and this frame-work was roofed over with a cloth composed of wadding-tilt, with which waggons are usually covered; and the boats, spars, running rigging, and sails, were removed onshore, in order to give as much room as possible on the upper-deck, to enable the crew to take exercise on board, whenever the weather should be too inclement for walking on shore. To obviate the intrusion of the scurvy, a quantity of vinegar was allowed with the meat to each man, and lime-juice and sugar were also given; and as the captain considered that the health of the mind has no small influence on that of the body, he found amusement for the men in reading, writing, and theatrical amusements. Even a weekly news-paper (we will not say, was established, but) was carried on for some months, under the title of the "North-Georgia Gazette and Winter Chronicle;" and the weekly contributions of the officers not only agreeably employed the leisure hours of those who furnished them, but diverted the minds of the readers from the gloomy prospect which would sometimes obtrude itself even on the stoutest heart. For three months, the adventurers did not even see the sun; and for more than ten months they lingered in this dreary abode. Sometimes they varied the scene by excursions, and, when they stayed out for a night, they took tents, fuel, and provisions with them, in a light cart, to which blankets were appended as sails. The animals which they saw on these occasions were deer, musk-oxen, swallows, geese, ducks, plovers, and ptarmigans; the vegetables were the dwarf-willow, sorrel, poppy, and saxifrage; and, in one spot, they were surprised at finding a ranunculus in full flower.

We may easily suppose, that, to persons thus circumstanced, the return of the summer (which, to the Esquimaux, may be said to comprehend all our seasons except the winter) must have been exceedingly agreeable. No natives were seen amidst the Georgian groupe of islands; but, on the return of the ships, four canoes were seen paddling toward the Hecla in Baffin's Bay, and the persons who were in them (says the captain) "approached with great confidence, without the least appearance of fear or suspicion. While paddling toward us, and indeed before we could plainly perceive their canoes, they continued to vociferate loudly; but nothing like a song, or even like any articulate sound which can be expressed by words, could be distinguished. Their canoes were taken on board at their own desire, plainly intimated by signs, and with their assistance, and they at once came up the side without the least hesitation. These people consisted of an old man, apparently much above sixty, and three younger, from nineteen to thirty years of age. As soon as they came on deck, their vociferations seemed to increase with their astonishment, and, I may add, their pleasure; for the reception which they met with seemed to create no less joy than surprise. Whenever they received a present or any thing was shown to them which excited fresh admiration, they expressed their delight by loud and repeated ejaculations, which they sometimes continued till they were quite hoarse and out of breath with the exer-

tion. This noisy mode of expressing their satisfaction was accompanied by a jumping which continued for some minutes, according to the degree of passion which excited it, and the bodily powers of the person who exercised it, the old man being rather too infirm, but still doing his utmost to go through the performance."

The behaviour of another tribe of the natives seemed still more to amuse and interest the strangers. While the officers were employed in astronomical observations, the Esquimaux amused themselves in the most good-natured and cheerful manner with the crew of one of the boats. Lieutenant Hoppner endeavoured to take a likeness of a young native; but such was his inclination to jump about, when pleased, that it was exceedingly difficult to make him sit still for a few minutes. His activity was still more manifested, when a looking-glass was shown to him: he jumped for joy, and was quite in raptures, while an old man, having had one smile at his own queer face, looked uncommonly grave on the occasion. In an interview with some women, the word *pilletay* (give me) resounded from every one; all wished to get buttons or other ornamental trifles. A woman who was the owner of a sledge readily gave it in exchange for some pikes, which she licked as soon as she had received them: another female gave a dog for an axe; and various bargains were subsequently adjusted without any wish, on the part of the natives, to practise that dishonesty which is very frequent among savage tribes.

At the end of the long winter, the ships were in perfect condition; the seamen were zealous in the cause of discovery; and the captain eagerly hoped to profit by the return of favorable weather. On the 1st of August, 1820, he set sail to the westward, and continued his course, amidst temporary obstacles, during one half of the short season which is allowed for the navigation of that part of the Polar Sea,—a period not exceeding seven weeks. He had almost reached the longitude of 114 degrees, when the consideration of the increasing peril induced him to return to Baffin's Bay, as he had then no chance of penetrating to Behring's Strait. He carefully explored the western side of that bay, and met with some whale-fishing vessels in a latitude previously deemed inaccessible. He returned by the way of Scotland, and, after an absence of about eighteen months, safely arrived in the Thames.

Hardened against intense cold, by which none of the voyagers had very severely suffered, the captain, in 1821, undertook another voyage to the north, but did not return to the Georgian islands. He passed the short summer chiefly in an examination of Repulse-Bay, (a peninsula extending from about 66 to 70 degrees,) and of some inlets which proved to be merely channels running deep into the land; and, when the winter commenced, he chose Winter-Island for his station, situated in a comparatively low latitude, yet to the north of the Arctic Circle. For almost three quarters of a year, the ships were ice-bound in this spot; and, during four months of that time, the adventurers saw no human beings except their own party: but, in addition to their own exercises and amusements, their solitude was at length enlivened by the appearance of a body of natives, who had never before seen any Europeans. Pleased rather than alarmed at the sight of strange machines and strange men, they boldly entered the vessels, and one of them carried an old man upon his back to show him the amazing sight. Some of the sailors quickly returned the visit, and were received in the huts of the Esquimaux with marks of the most friendly joy. These huts were formed of blocks of hard snow, fitted to each other like courses of masonry, to the height of about eight feet, the upper part having the form of a cupola. Doors were cut out

of the solid wall, and the bed-place was covered of the same material, and sometimes a lamp, and a chair, were mounted by the natives. They made use of a very high boat. They made use of the last, fish, raw etate; but following mode filled with oil fuel. The oil of the flames, the grease. Another fire thus not very delicate their persons white; their not robust.

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of the solid wall, and plates of clear ice were inserted as windows. The bed-place was formed of snow-blocks with neatness and regularity; the covering of the couch consisted of the smaller branches of the pine-tree, and sometimes of skins; and at each end was a block for the reception of a lamp, and of those garments which the sleeper might not want during his repose. The ordinary dress was composed of a coat of skin, surmounted by a hood, and trimmed with fur; and both sexes wore very high boots, which served as pockets, tool-boxes, and cupboards. They made use of bows, arrows, and spears, of wood or of horn; and, with the last, fish were caught below the ice. Many used to eat flesh in a raw state; but others, and more particularly the women, cooked it in the following mode. A pot-stone, resembling a kitchen ash-shovel, was filled with oil: in this, wicks of moss floated, and were lighted for the fuel. The oil was gradually supplied from strings of fat hung up above the flames, the heat of which melted them into so many reservoirs of grease. Another stone utensil, formed like a trough, was placed over the fire thus made, and in it the meat was stewed. The people were not very delicate in their mode of eating, nor were they neat or clean in their persons. Their complexions were of a dirty-looking yellowish white; their general stature was short, and their forms were apparently not robust.

The quadrupeds of the country were rein-deer, dogs, wolves, bears, foxes, ermines, marmots, and hares; the birds were ducks, gulls, snow-buatings, ptarmigans, hawks, owls, and ravens; the insects were bees, mosquitoes, moths, spiders, and flies. Of plants or flowers, few species were observed; yet some grew in profusion. The wild tansy, of which the roots were eaten, the poppy, andromeda, saxifrage, a kind of cowslip, and a bright yellow moss, were seen with some degree of surprise; and, on Winter-Island, where the sailors had gardens, vegetation was for a short season very brisk.

On the renewal of the voyage, a large bay was found to the eastward of that island, in the latitude of 69 degrees, and within it was an inhabited island, called Igloolek. After fruitless wandering, the captain, when he could only perceive a frozen sea, returned to that island, where the ships were secured for the winter. Excursions were frequently made, during that long and dismal season, in sledges drawn by dogs; and the occasional society of the natives served to amuse the seamen, who admired the deep purple tinge of health which appeared on the broad faces of the girls, gazed on the expressive eyes of many of them, and smiled at the *grunt* which they uttered when they were highly pleased.

After endeavouring, in vain, to proceed in a westerly direction, the captain returned to England in the autumn of 1823. In the summer of the following year, he sailed from the western coast of Greenland, and proceeded amidst icy obstacles to Barrow's Strait, whence he sailed to the Prince-Regent's Inlet. At Port Bowen, in the latitude of 73 degrees, he passed the winter. On emerging from that station, he examined the inlet to the southward, but made no important discovery. During the survey, the *Fury*, being near the shore (where the only current was then to be found), was driven by a hillock of ice upon the lower accumulations, and thrown into such serious danger, that all attempts to repair the damage which the vessel had suffered, and to bring it again into play, were fruitless; its crew and stores were therefore removed to the *Hecla*, and it was abandoned as unserviceable. Thus deprived of his consort, the captain desisted from his search, and returned to Great-Britain.

In these voyages, the atmospheric and meteorological observations, and the variations of the magnetic needle, were in some degree curious, but not so important as to require detail in a compendious work. The greatest degree of cold that was experienced was less intense than what is sometimes felt in Russia, not being more than 55 degrees below the freezing point. Not one of the crew of either ship perished by cold, unless we attribute to that cause the fate of an unfortunate man, who fell through a chasm in the ice, and could not be extricated.

While Mr. Parry was employed in his first voyage, captain John Franklin undertook the task of penetrating from Hudson's Bay to the Arctic Sea. So slow were the movements of this officer and his associates, and so long were they detained at different stations by the inclemency of the weather and by various difficulties, that almost two years had elapsed from the commencement of the journey, when preparations were made for a voyage down the Copper-Mine river. In consequence of those interruptions of navigation which were occasioned by the rapids in that river, the canoes and baggage were dragged over snow and ice, at different portages, for 117 miles; but this labor and other inconveniences seemed to be forgotten when the Polar Sea appeared. On that ocean the party eagerly commenced a coasting voyage to the eastward. Little or no ice was seen, and nothing opposed the progress of the boats for five days. A cape was then weathered, and an extensive inlet found, to which the name of the Coronation Gulf was given. Checked by the want of supplies, the captain now returned to the land, and marching was substituted for navigation. Some of his native attendants fell victims to the combined pressure of famine, cold, and fatigue. Subordination ceased; despair succeeded; lieutenant Hood was murdered by an Iroquois, who in his turn was shot by Dr. Richardson; and only three companions, feeble and nearly exhausted, were left with Mr. Franklin at Fort-Enterprise, when some natives arrived with provisions. On their return to York-Factory, it was calculated that they had journeyed, by land and by water (the navigation of the Polar Sea being included), about 5500 miles. In the country through which they passed they met with some barbarian tribes, differing from the Esquimaux, but resembling the ordinary tribes of the North-American wilds. In the valleys among the Copper-Mountains, they found native copper in the beds of rivulets; and, on the coast near the great gulf, they discovered a vein of lead ore, traversing gneiss rocks. The trees were chiefly the spruce, larch, and poplar. Among the animals were deer and musk oxen, which attracted great numbers of ravenous bears and hungry wolves.

CANADA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 475 }	between { 43 and 50 north latitude. } { 67 and 85 west longitude. }	} 130,000.
Breadth 750 }		

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] THIS country is bounded by New-Britain on the north, by New-Brunswick on the east, by the territory of the United States on the south, and by the lake Superior, and

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the lands of savage tribes, on the west. It is divided into the Upper and Lower provinces. The former lies to the north of the lakes Huron and Ontario, and the latter on both sides of the river St. Laurence.

MOUNTAINS.] There are some mountains in the northern part of this country, and others between Quebec and the sea; but they are not entitled by their height or importance to 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, or Ottawa, St. John, Seguinay, Desprairies, and Trois-Rivières; but they are all swallowed up by the St. Laurence, which issues from the lake Ontario, takes its course north-east, and meets the tide 400 miles from the sea, where it is navigable for large vessels. Below Quebec, 320 miles from the sea, it becomes broad, and so deep, that ships of the line contributed, in the year 1760, to the reduction of that capital. It falls into the ocean at Cape Rosières, where it is eighty miles broad, and where the cold is intense, and the sea boisterous. In its progress it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and fruitful islands.

LAKES.] On the borders of Canada are five lakes, which will be hereafter described. All are navigable by large vessels; and all communicate with one another, except that the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by the falls of Niagara. The St. Laurence 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 are connected with each other, as well as where the last 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, silver has been found. This country also possesses coal; but it is not of the best quality.

CLIMATE.] The 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 are so well defended against the cold, that this season is neither so unhealthy nor so unpleasant as might be expected. The excessive cold is attributed to the prevalence of north-east and north-west winds, which, coming from the bleak regions of Hudson's Bay and Labrador, and sweeping over snowy mountains and frozen lakes, acquire a penetrating severity, which they carry with them into the lower latitudes. 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.] The soil of Lower Canada is in many parts fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, and other sorts of grain, fruit, and vegetables; tobacco in particular thrives well, and is much cultivated. The isle of Orleans, near Quebec, and the lands upon the St. Laurence and other rivers, are remarkable for the richness of their soil. The meadow grounds, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle. In Upper Canada, the soil is in general less fruitful, yet by no means unproductive; and, indeed, Mr. Howison recommends this province to British emigrants as superior to the lower division of the colony in the advantages both of soil and climate.

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 few are acquainted with one half of the number. Canada produces two sorts of pines, the white and red; four sorts of firs; two species of cedar and oak; the male and the female maple; three sorts of ash-trees, the free, mongrel, and bastard; three sorts of walnut-trees; vast numbers of beech-trees and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The savages 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. 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 margold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire, and the hop-plant.

ANIMALS.] The quadrupeds that find shelter and nourishment in the Canadian forests, and which indeed traverse the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are buffaloes, 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, various sorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, swarm with otters and beavers. The American beaver 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, and 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 lives in society, and is governed by a leader resembling their own sachem, or prince. It must indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal, of 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 the season, are sufficient to show the near approaches of instinct to reason, if not in some instances the superiority of the former. Beavers are of different colors; black, brown, white, and yellow; but it is observed, that the lighter the color is, the less quantity of fur they are clothed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs 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 savages, who smear them with unctuous substances, which not only render them more pliable, but give, to the fine down that is manufactured into hats, the oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with dry fur. Both the Dutch and English make excellent boots, gloves, and stockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Beside the fur, this useful animal produces the true castoreum, which is contained in

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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 delicious food, except when it is boiled. The musk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver, which 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 color a mixture of light grey and dark red. Elks love 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 of killing him.

The buffalo 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 buffalo-hides are as soft and pliable as chamois leather, but so very strong that the bucklers which the savages make of them are hardly penetrable by a musquet ball. Wolves, which are not very common in Canada, afford the finest furs in all the country. The black foxes are greatly esteemed, and very scarce; while those of other colors are common: some are of a silver hue, and very beautiful. They live upon water-fowls, which they decoy by antic tricks, and then spring up and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat has a fine white fur; but the tip of his tail 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. There are two sorts of bears here, one reddish, and the other black: the former is the most dangerous. The bears are not in general fierce, unless when wounded, or oppressed with hunger. During the winter they remain in a kind of torpid state. Scarcely any thing is undertaken with greater solemnity than the pursuit of the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one day, is more eagerly sought than that of one who has rendered himself famous in war. The reason is, because the chase supplies the family both with food and raiment.

With regard to the feathered creation, eagles, falcons, goshawks, ter-cols, partridges, grey, red, and black (with long tails, which they beautifully spread out as a fan), are among the wild birds of Canada. Wood-cocks are scarce; but snipes and other water-game are found in abundance. Here are blackbirds, swallows, larks, many species of ducks, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, cranes, and other large water-fowls; but always at a distance from houses. The Canadian woodpecker is a beautiful bird. Thrushes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very 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 its plumage it is not larger than an English beetle or May-bug, and makes a noise with its wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-snake chiefly deserves attention. 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. Its bite is fatal, if a remedy be not immediately applied. 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 its venom, even with the most simple preparation; for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied 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 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.—The black snake, though venomous, is not so mischievous as the rattle-snake; and, in one respect, it is a friend to the Canadians, if (as Mr. Talbot says) it embraces the rattling reptile within its ample coil, and with its tail whips the neck to death. It is also said to possess the power of fascination more strongly than any other species of snake.

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, in the greatest plenty and of the best sorts.

Beside 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, achigau, gilt-head, tunny, shad, and lamprey. The sea-wolf, so called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; some are said to weigh two thousand pounds; their flesh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning, and dressing leather; their skins make excellent coverings for trunks, and, though not so fine as Morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less apt to crack. The shoes and boots made of those skins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, form very good coverings 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 waistcoats are made, which are excessively strong, and immsquet-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 only a foot long; they catch only the last, and that with a torch. The goberque has the taste and smell of a small cod. The sea-plaise also supplies palatable food. It is usually 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 color is a silver grey; and there grows under its mouth a long bony substance, ragged at the edges. It may easily be conceived, than 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 beside his weapon, which he holds 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 have 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

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lakes. The sturgeon is both a fresh and salt-water fish, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionally thick. There is a small kind of sturgeon, the flesh of which is very tender and delicate.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] These are the vast lakes, rivers, and cataracts, of the country. Among the last, the principal is the stupendous fall, or cataract, which is called the fall 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 travelers 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 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 ten miles. The vapor 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 observer favor the view. 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 savages, through carelessness or intoxication, have met with the same fate.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of Canada, of French and English descent, and indeed all except the scattered savages, are supposed to amount to 150,000. Those of the first description denote their descent by that presence of mind, address, and politeness, which in general they display. They have dark complexions, small and sharp eyes, and are generally thin, though strong. Those of the second class have more agreeable countenances, but are less courteous and accommodating in their manners. Both classes are fond of sensual indulgence, card-playing, dancing, music, and gaiety. The savages nearly resemble those tribes which are dispersed over the whole country between the towns of the United States and the Rocky Mountains. Mr. Howison speaks of the farmers of the upper province as a different set of men from any other body or class in the colony. "After surmounting the difficulties which at first checked their course, these men (he says) now reap the full produce of their labor, being neither burthened by rents, nor encumbered with taxes. Many of them possess thirty or forty head of cattle, and annually store up two or three thousand bushels of grain in their barns; but this melioration in their condition, unfortunately, has not produced a corresponding effect on their manners, characters, or modes of life. They are still the same untutored incorrigible beings that they probably were, when, being the ruffian remnant of a disbanded regiment, or the outlawed refuse of some European nation, they sought refuge in the wilds of Upper Canada, aware that they might neither find the means of support nor be countenanced in any civilised country. Their original depravity has been confirmed and increased by the circumstances in which they are placed. Possessing arms which render them independent of the better classes of society, they can, within certain limits, be as bold, unconstrained, and obtrusive as they please, in their behaviour to their superiors; for they neither look to them for subsistence, nor for any thing else. They now consider themselves on an equality with those to whom, in former times, the hope of gain would have made them cringe like slaves; and tacitly avow their contempt of the better parts of society, by avoiding the slightest approximation toward them, so far as regards habits, appearance, or mode of life."

CHIEF TOWNS.] Quebec, the capital, not only of Lower Canada, but of all British America, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles. The former stream, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, suddenly narrows to about a mile. The haven, which is opposite to 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. The fortifications on the land side are very elaborate and complete: and, in other parts, the natural strength of the place is sufficient for defence. Substantial stone buildings line the streets both of the upper and lower towns; and in the former are the French and English cathedrals, the Jesuits' college (now a barrack), and the convent of the Ursulines.

From Quebec to Montréal, in sailing up the St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms are very numerous; 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 town called Trois Rivières, in the mid-way between Quebec and Montréal, has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the St. Lawrence. It is much resorted to by the savage tribes, 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, and many handsome houses stand on both sides of the rivers.

Montreal (that is, Mount-Royal) stands on an island in the St. Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length, and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and the isle belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island became 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 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. Notwithstanding the number of English residents, the population of the town has still an aspect decidedly French.

York-town, near the lake Ontario, is considered as the capital of Upper Canada; but it has little trade, and is neither strong nor populous. The largest town in this province is Kingston, which, however, has not above 5,500 inhabitants. Most of the houses are built of lime-stone, of which there are extensive quarries in the vicinity. The bay affords so fine a harbour, that a vessel of 120 guns might lie close to the quay. The place is strong, both by nature and art, and might be rendered almost impregnable.

TRADE.] The exports consist of wheat, flour, biscuit, flax-seed, fish, pot-ash, and various medicinal roots, but principally of peltry. The imports consist of rum, brandy, coffee, sugar, wine, tobacco, salt, provisions for the troops, and dry goods.

GOVERNMENT.] By the Quebec bill, enacted in 1791 by the parliament of Great Britain, it was ordained that there should be, in each of the Canadian provinces, a legislative council and an assembly, which, with the consent of the governor appointed by the king, should have power

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to make laws; but that the king might declare his dissent at any time within two years after receiving any bill. The legislative council was to consist of not fewer than seven members for Upper, and fifteen for Lower Canada, to be summoned by the governor, who must be authorised by the king. They hold their seats for life, unless they forfeit them by an absence of four years, or by transferring their allegiance to some foreign power. The house of assembly was 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 were to be called together at least once in the year; and every assembly was to continue four years, unless it should be sooner dissolved by the governor.

RELIGION.] About nine-tenths of the inhabitants of these provinces are Roman-catholics, while the rest of the people are protestants of various sects. The former, it may be observed, are more attentive to religious duties than the latter.

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 first 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 Great-Britain, under the government of which it has ever since continued.

NOVA SCOTIA AND NEW BRUNSWICK.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 350 } Breadth 250 }	between { 44 and 49 North latitude. 60 and 67 West longitude. }	57,000

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 which connects that stream with the sea, 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, 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, by the gut of Canso; on the north it has a part of the gulf of St. Laurence, and the strait of Northumberland; 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.

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 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 Chaleur; to the eastward by the said bay to the gulf of St. Laurence, to the bay called Bay Vert; to the south by a line in the centre of the Bay of Fundy, drawn from the river St. Croix to the mouth of the Musquat river; by the said river to its source, and thence by a due line across the isthmus into the Bay Vert.

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 small vessels about sixty miles; and St. Croix, which divides this province from the district of Maine.

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.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the temperate zone, has been found rather unfavorable to European constitutions. They are involved in the gloom of a fog during a 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 a climate little can be expected. Nova Scotia, 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 shriveled 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 late colonies, 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 very proper for ship-building, and produces pitch and tar.

ANIMALS.] These provinces are not deficient in the animals of the neighbouring countries, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl, and all sorts of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupeds, have, from time to time, been introduced, 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.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The capital of Nova Scotia 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. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber. A town of less note is Annapolis Royal, which stands on the east side of the bay of Fundy, and 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.

The chief towns of New Brunswick are these: St. John's, Fredericton, St. Andrew's, and St. Anne's, the present seat of government.

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pearance of this country, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made. A great part of it was assigned by James I. to his secretary, Sir. William Alexander; but it 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 been enabled 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. The colony did not make a rapid progress; and, even at the present moment, it is very unproductive, in point of revenue, to the parent state.

BRITISH ISLANDS IN NORTH AMERICA.

THE islands belonging to Great Britain in North America are Newfoundland, Cape Breton, St. John's, and the Bermudas.

NEWFOUNDLAND is situated on the east side of the gulf of St. Laurence, and is separated from Labrador by the Strait 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 very 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. The numbers of cod, both on the great and smaller banks, are inanceivable; and several other species of fish are also caught there in great abundance.

The chief towns 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 commander of which, for the time being, is governor of the island, beside whom there is a lieutenant-governor, who resides at Placentia.

This island was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1497; and both the French and English had made settlements there in the beginning of the seventeenth century. After various contests and disputes, it 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, with a proviso that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to the English. These privileges were confirmed by the treaty of Amiens, and, in 1814, by the pacification of Paris.

CAPE BRETON. This island is about 100 miles in length, and 50 in breadth. The soil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louisbourg, which is nearly four leagues in circumference. The French began a settlement here in 1714; of which, however, they were dispossessed in 1745, by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, with little assistance from Great Britain; but, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, it was restored to the French, who spared no expense to fortify it. It was again reduced, in 1758, by the British troops, and has since remained in our possession.

The **ISLE of ST. JOHN**, in the gulf of St. Laurence, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 in breadth, and has several fine rivers; and, though situated near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, has greatly the advantage of both in pleasantness and fertility of soil. On the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this island submitted quietly to the British arms. It was so improved by the French, that it was styled the granary of Canada. Charlotte-town is the present seat of government. The inhabitants are estimated at about five thousand.

BERMUDAS, or SOMERS' ISLANDS. These received their first name from their being discovered by John Bermuda, a Spániard; and were called the Somers' Islands, from Sir George Somers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. Their distance from the Land's End is computed to be near 1400 leagues, from Madeira about 1100, and from Carolina about 250. The Bermudas are small, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and they are very difficult of access, being, as Waller the poet, who resided some time there, expresses it, "walled with rocks." The chief island has several ports, two fortresses, and a town consisting of about 500 houses. The whole insular population amounts to 10,350 persons, of whom almost one half are negroes or mulattoes. The air has been always esteemed healthful; and the beauty and richness of the vegetable productions are delightful; but frequent storms of thunder and lightening, and dreadful hurricanes, in some degree counterbalance those advantages. Though the soil is adapted to the cultivation of the vine, the chief business of the inhabitants, who are not fond of agriculture, 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.

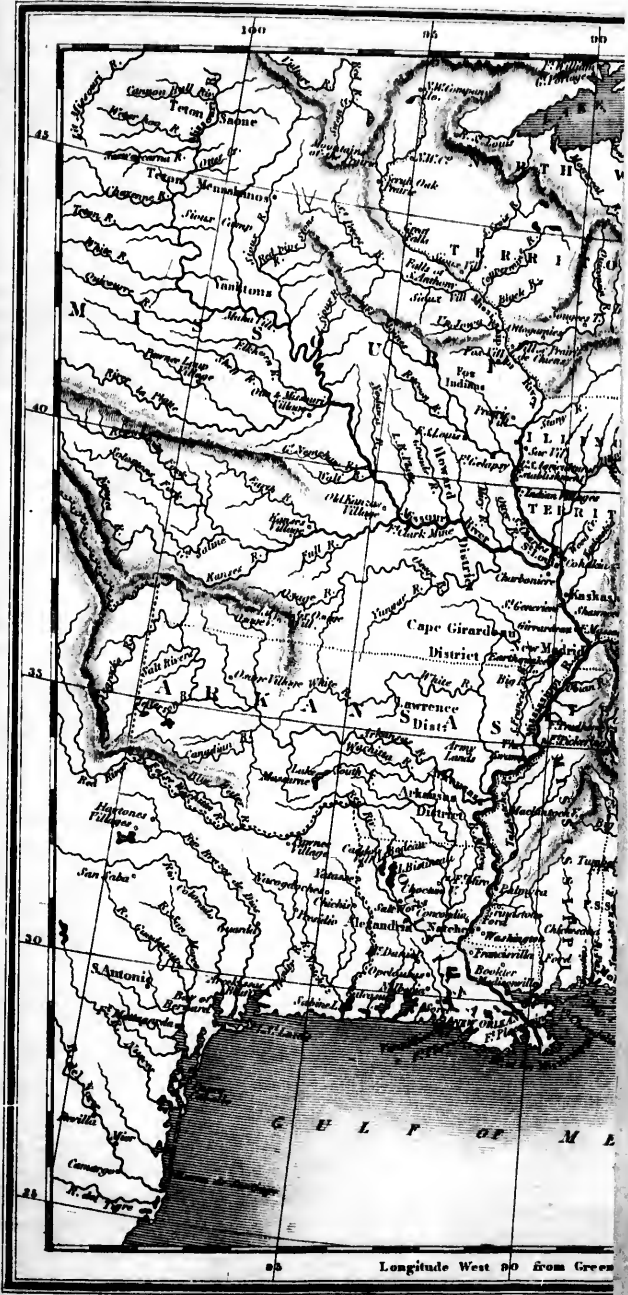
THE UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1300	} between	{ 29 and 48 North latitude.	} 950,000.
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THE breadth of this territory might be made far more considerable, by extending it (as some do) to the rocky mountains, or (as others have done) to the Pacific; but, we have avoided the inclusion of an immense mass of unsettled country.





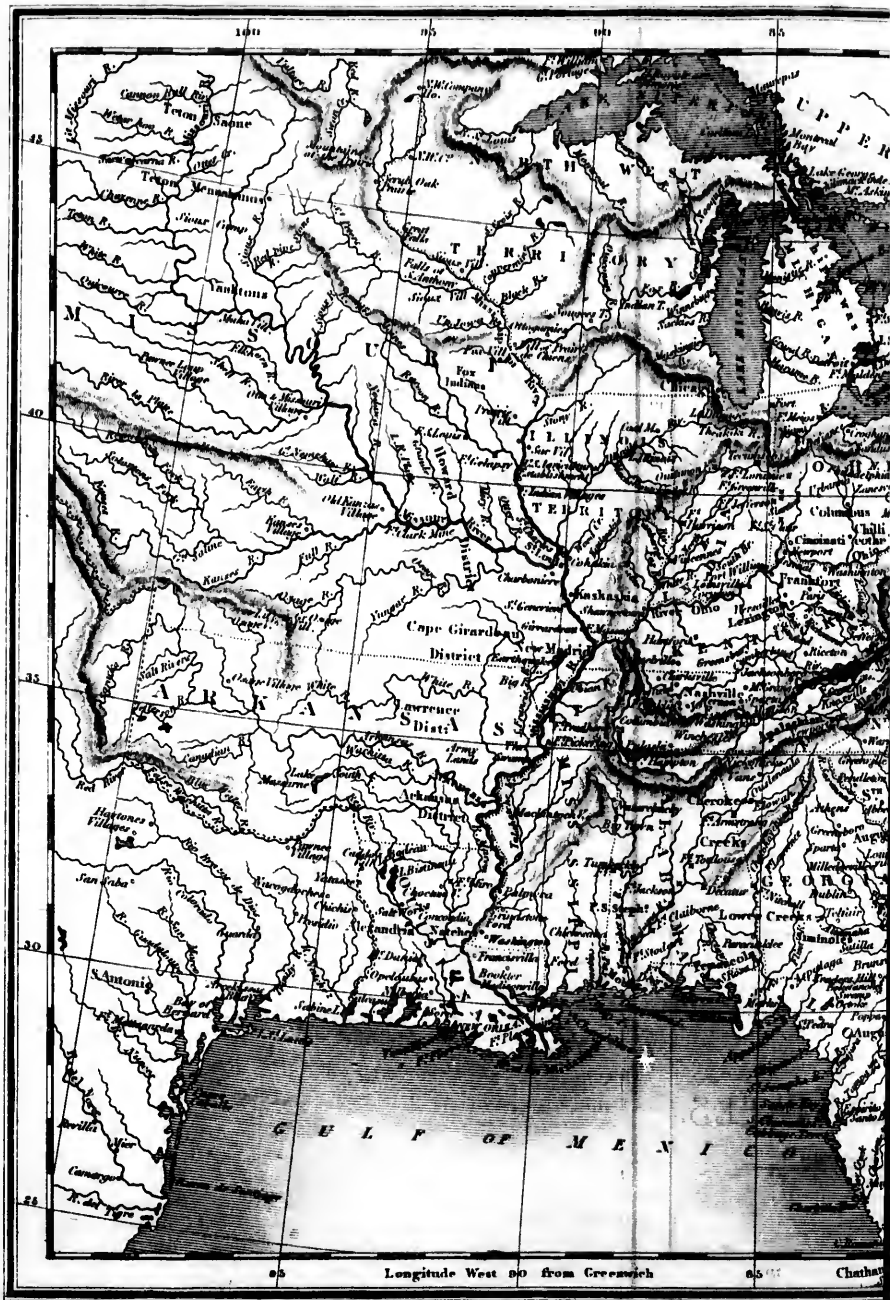
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The progress of this republic excites universal attention. The rapid increase of its population, the great augmentation of its territory and power, the extraordinary extension of its commerce, and the enterprising spirit of its people, are calculated to make a strong impression not only upon the minds of reflecting politicians, but even upon the feelings of ordinary observers.

We shall first enumerate the component parts of the rising state; and then, as it sprang from colonial establishments, regularly trace its history, before we enter into a geographical and statistic survey.

The United States are twenty-four in number, having separate governments, constitutions, and laws, cemented by a general federal constitution, administered by an elective head, and by a proportional number of representatives of the people from all the states. They may be classed in four grand divisions, namely,

I. The NEW-ENGLAND OR
NORTH-EASTERN STATES.
Massachuset
Maine
New Hampshire
Rhode Island
Connecticut
Vermont

II. The MIDDLE STATES.
New York
New Jersey
Pennsylvania
Delaware
Ohio

III. The SOUTHERN STATES.
Maryland
Virginia
North Carolina
South Carolina
Georgia
Kentucky
Tennessee

IV. The NORTH-WESTERN,
WESTERN, and SOUTH-
WESTERN STATES.
Illinois
Indiana
Missouri
Louisiana
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To these states we may add the following territories;—the district of Columbia, including the city of Washington; the north-west and Michigan countries, and the extensive space between the rocky mountains and the Pacific Ocean. The last, indeed, can scarcely be called an integral part of the republic: but it is peremptorily claimed by the congress; and neither the high pretensions of the Spaniards will invalidate the claim, nor can their declining power prevent its enforcement.

HISTORY.] It was reasonable to expect that the discovery of a new quarter of the world would be followed, in an age of enterprise, by occupancy and colonisation: yet a long period was suffered by the English to elapse before they appropriated any part of America to the purpose of habitation. Cabot took possession of a part of North-America in the name of king Henry VII., as early as the year 1497; but no steps were taken for its colonisation, before Sir Walter Raleigh sent a small body of adventurers to that part of the coast which is now included in North-Carolina. The early attempts were abortive. At length, in 1607, captain Newport, landing with another company of emigrants, by the authority of a charter from James I., established a colony in *Virginia* (so called in compliment to our virgin queen, Elizabeth); and James-town, the first that was erected by the English in the New World, rose into existence. It was at first a collection of mere huts, defended by a barricade formed by the trunks of,

trees. Various wants and difficulties, for some time, obstructed the progress of the settlement to consequence and power; and it was frequently in danger of being ruined by famine, and the hostility of the savages. It was, however, gradually established; its frontiers were extended: a council and general assembly were formed; and the laws of England were adopted as provincial institutes. While the new colony was slowly advancing, the Dutch took possession of an extensive territory to the north of Virginia, giving it the appellation of the New-Netherlands; and, in 1620, a party of English puritans, disgusted with a government which deprived them of the free exercise of their religion, embarked for North-America, under the auspices of a chartered company, and, landing near Cape-Cod, built a town, to which they gave the name of Plymouth. They began to cultivate the country with zeal and diligence, and took the best steps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, finding themselves, for the same reason, uneasy at home, passed over into the land of religious and civil liberty. By the close of the year 1630, they had erected four towns, Salem, Dorchester, Charles-town, and Boston, which last became the capital not only of the new (or Massachuset) colony, but of the more comprehensive territory 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 occasioned 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 a uniformity of religion among all who entered their territories. The minds of men were not in that age superior to many prejudices; they had not that open and generous way of thinking which at present distinguishes the natives of Great Britain; and the doctrine of universal toleration, which, to the honor of the first settlers in America, began to appear among them, had few advocates, and many opponents. Many of them were bigoted Calvinists; and, though they had felt the weight of persecution, 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, where-ever 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. New-Hampshire was one of these scions; and another was Rhode-Island, whose inhabitants were driven from the Massachuset colony, for supporting the freedom of religious sentiments, and maintaining that the civil magistrate had no right to control the speculative opinions of mankind. These liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and, from the connexion between justness of sentiment and external prosperity, the territory of Rhode-Island, though small, became 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, became 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 go-

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vernment. The want of this licence prevented Cromwell, Hampden, and others of the party, from going to New-England.

In the progress of the New-England colony, a party of Swedes, arriving on the banks of the Delaware, purchased a great tract of land from the natives, and began to erect and fortify a small town. The Dutch afterwards obtained possession of this spot; and from them it was transferred to the English, in consequence of an authoritative demand, supported by an armament.

Protestants had hitherto been the colonial leaders and founders; but, when the catholics became the objects of increasing hatred in England, on account of the indulgence with which they were treated by the court, lord Baltimore obtained, from king Charles I., the grant of a part of the Virginian province; and, in honor of the queen, the name of Maryland was given to the subtracted portion. About 200 catholics, some of considerable distinction, embarked with the conscientious peer to enter into possession of this 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 natives: they even lived with them for some time in the same town; and harmony continued to subsist between the nations, until the savages 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 colonists, however, did not neglect their own safety on this occasion. Though they continued their friendly intercourse with the natives, they erected a fort, and took every other precaution for their defence against sudden hostilities: the defeat of this attempt gave a new spring to the activity of the plantation, which was also strengthened by frequent reinforcements from England. During the sway of Cromwell, lord Baltimore was deprived of his rights, and a new governor was substituted for him; but, at the Restoration, he was reinstated, 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 ease and comfort, flocked into Maryland.

The territories near the Hudson and Delaware rivers, called by the Dutch colonists the New-Netherlands, were granted immediately after their seizure, in 1664, to the duke of York, who, in the sequel, transferred a considerable part of them to lord Berkeley and sir George Carteret. The appellation of New-York was given to the northern division, and New-Jersey to the southern; and the Delaware counties, considered at first as dependencies upon the former, at length became a separate colony, governed by its own representative assembly.

Carolina was comprehended in the original grant to sir Walter Raleigh; but, as his schemes of colonisation did not take effect, Charles II. assigned that territory to lord Carteret, and other distinguished persons; and a constitution was framed for it by the celebrated Locke, whose plan, however, being too aristocratic for the popular spirit of the colonists, and also adverse to religious freedom, led to discord and confusion, which did not entirely subside before the government was rendered, by the crown, more conformable to the general wish.

To the west of New-Jersey, a spacious and fertile territory had been planted, first by the Swedes, and afterwards by the Dutch. Charles II. promised a grant of it to admiral Penn, the conqueror of Jamaica; on whose death, his son, the celebrated Quaker, availed himself of this

promise, and, after much solicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine Mr. William Penn be little known but to those of his own persuasion, his reputation, in a character no less respectable, is universal among civilised nations. The circumstances of the times engaged great numbers to follow him into his new settlement, to avoid the persecutions to which the Quakers, like other sectaries, were then exposed; but it was to his own wisdom and ability that they were indebted for that charter of privileges which placed this colony on so respectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in the utmost latitude, was laid down by that great man as the chief and only foundation 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 without the consent of the inhabitants. 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 investigated by a court constituted 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 extended also to the savage tribes: instead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchased of those people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, or the 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 system, being founded on equity, serves for the basis of the present constitution of Pennsylvania.

After a long interval, during which the colonies in general remained tranquil, and continued to thrive and increase, a thirteenth was added to the existing number. Under the pretence of converting slaves to the Christian religion, the governor of Florida encouraged the escape of those belonging to Carolina, and formed them into a military corps. To check this encroachment, a fort was built on the Alatomaha; and, when it had been destroyed by fire, the British court resolved to establish a colony between that river and the Savannah. A number of individuals who were either adventurously disposed, or were not favored with the gifts of fortune, among whom were many insolvent debtors, crossed the Atlantic, and, by erecting the town of Savannah, in 1733, gave a beginning to that colony which derived from the king the name of Georgia. It remained for many years in a feeble state, though it was zealously encouraged by the government and by private contributors. Its progress was retarded by the hostilities of the Spaniards and the savages, by internal dissensions, and the supposed insalubrity of the climate: but it ultimately surmounted all difficulties.

As the French viewed with a jealous eye the colonial power of Great-Britain, such encroachments were made in various parts by the governors of their American provinces as roused the indignation of the court, and led to a war between the nations. The success of that war we have noticed in the history of England. As the colonists had been so effectually aided and defended by the parent-state, it was alleged by the king and his ministers, that they ought to pay for the protection which they had received, in addition to the small duties which had hitherto been exacted from them. They were willing to contribute to the exigencies of the state; but they insisted on the privileges of their own assemblies, and denied the right of the British parliament to tax them, as they were not represented in that body. The court persisted in its impolicy; a rupture ensued, and the consequence was the formation of an independent

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state. The most remarkable incidents and circumstances of that memorable contest we have already related. It was on the 4th of July, 1776 (the second year of the war), that the Trans-Atlantic congress published a solemn declaration, assigning continued tyranny and oppression as the reasons for withdrawing allegiance from the king. In this manifesto, the inhabitants of the United Colonies of New Hampshire, the Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, 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, 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 made upon all or any one of them on account of religion, sovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretence whatever. Each colony reserved to itself the exclusive right of regulating its 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, or by 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 government, for which he, or any other for his benefit, should receive any salary, fees, or emolument. In determining questions in the congress, each state was to have one vote, and to abide by the determination of that assembly. The articles of 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 one of them, unless previously adopted in a general congress, 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, as independent states. Holland acknowledged them as such, in 1782; and, on the 30th of November, in that year, provisional articles were signed at Paris by the British and American commissioners, in which his Britannic majesty acknowledged the late colonies to be free, sovereign, and independent states; and these articles were, in due time, ratified by a definitive treaty.

As it was found, by experience, that the government of the new republic was not sufficiently compact for all the purposes of union, it was the advice of general Washington, that the ties of the confederation should be drawn closer. With this view, the constitution was superseded, in 1789, by a new code. It was ordained that a president, chosen for four years, should command both the army and navy; that he might conclude treaties, and appoint ambassadors, ministers, and

the supreme judges, with the assent of two-thirds of the senate; that this assembly should consist of two delegates, chosen once in six years by each state; that popular representatives, not exceeding the number of 200, should be elected in every second year; and that no particular state should assume any kind of general authority, but that each must confine itself to the mere concerns of ordinary administration within its own boundaries, according to the separate constitution which had been framed for every component part of the confederacy. Upon this basis the government was ably administered, first by Washington, and subsequently by Adams, Jefferson, and Madison. During the sway of the last president, a war arose from disputes which had long subsisted with the British court. The causes and chief incidents of that war having been already stated, we proceed to take notice of the gradual augmentation of the territories and power of the republic. To the west of New-Hampshire, various settlements had been formed at different times, in a territory to which the colonists gave the name of *Vermont* from the green aspect of the mountains. The inhabitants were among the first who opposed the high claims of the British government; but they were not rewarded by an admission into the federal union before the year 1791. In the following year, an extensive territory to the west of Virginia was added to the union, under the name of Kentucky, which had excited the notice of adventurers in 1754, and, after a long contest with the savage claimants, had been secured by colonial parties. To the south of Kentucky, the Cherokees had been gradually dispossessed of their lands; and a new state, named Tennessee, was thus formed in 1796. The next state that was annexed to the union extends from the Ohio to Lake Erie: it was not regularly colonised before the year 1788. Eleven years afterward, in consequence of that increase of population which included 5000 free male inhabitants of full age, it was declared to be a distinct state; but the advantage of a separate constitution was delayed to the year 1802, when the growing amount of the whole colony reached 60,000. Still intent on territorial aggrandisement, the congress purchased from the French, in 1803, the province of Louisiana, and thus extended its dominion to the gulf of Mexico. As, between this state and Georgia, a very spacious tract remained nearly unoccupied, it was resolved, in 1817, not only that the Alabama territory should be declared to be an appendage of the republic, but that the country extending 150 miles from the left bank of the Mississippi, and reaching the borders of Tennessee on the north, should form an integral part of the union,—an honor which was also granted to Indiana, between Lake Michigan and Kentucky. The thirteen states which commenced the independent confederacy were thus augmented to twenty: and others have since been added, in consequence of their increasing population.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, (CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.) The most prominent feature is a mountainous range, the length of which is estimated at 900 miles, while its breadth varies from 50 to 150. It extends from the river St. Laurence in the north to the Georgian province in the south; and its highest ridge preserves nearly an equal distance of 250 miles from the Atlantic shore, and an almost uniform elevation above it of about 3000 feet. These mountains form the Apalachian chain, or rather two chains, the eastern being called the Blue Ridge, and the western known by the name of the Cumberland and Gauley mountains, and afterward by that of Alleghany. The most elevated point of the whole mass is Mount-Washington, which soars more than 6000 feet above the level of the sea. The other parts of the country form chiefly

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So extensive a country involves great varieties of climate. The coldest is that which prevails in the north-east, where the winter is usually very severe for three months, and the summer, though hot for a time, is very short: a more temperate climate is felt in the middle states; and the heat is so great to the south of Virginia, that frost is unknown beyond the 29th degree of latitude. The winds which chiefly blow are the north-west, south-west, and north-east. The first, when it blows from the elevated country, is particularly dry and cold. On the coast of the Atlantic, where it meets warm clouds and warm currents of air, it produces snow, hail, and sometimes rain; and, along the banks of the Missisipi and Ohio, it is frequently accompanied with rain in winter and storms in summer. The south-west is chiefly a summer wind, and is more constant on the western than on the eastern side of the Apalachian mountains. The north-east, crossing a great extent of sea, brings cold and humidity on the whole Atlantic coast: and, both at the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, it produces violent and disastrous hurricanes.

The maritime parts of North-America are affected in their climate by what is called the gulf-stream. This immense current runs from Florida to Newfoundland, at the rate of four or five miles in an hour, with a breadth of forty-five or fifty miles, and at the distance of twenty-three leagues from the shore. Its temperature is from ten to twenty-two degrees warmer than the contiguous water, and the warm vapors which ascend from it are condensed into mists or fogs.

More rain falls in the United States than in the European regions. Gentle showers are very rare, and the rains resemble the torrents of tropical climates. It has been ascertained, on the other hand, that these states enjoy a greater proportion of sunshine and unclouded weather than most parts of Europe: but, that the climate in general is not very salubrious, may be inferred from the prevalence of many diseases which are most injurious to life. The yellow fever sometimes rages with pestilential malignity; and it rather appears to be generated by the *miasmata* of the atmosphere, by heat and moisture, than to be imported, as was supposed, from tropical countries. Intermittent and bilious fevers are also frequent; and the former disease occasionally assumes the appearance of the yellow fever. It was generally supposed that the country became more healthy as it was more cleared and cultivated: yet it appears, that, in the state of New-York, the borders of the lakes and rivers have become subject to an intermittent fever since the commencement of cultivation; the good effect of which, therefore, is slow and gradual. The pulmonary phthisis or consumption is not uncommon: the rheumatism is prevalent in many parts; and the dysentery often shows itself after very warm weather that is followed by coolness and moisture. There is another disorder, which, though not dangerous, is particularly injurious to female beauty: it is a premature decay of the teeth, or scurvy in the gums.

Volney divides the soil into five regions, namely, that of granite, including secondary rocks, extending from Long-Island to the mouth of the St. Laurence; the transition rocks near Hudson's River; the calcareous or limestone districts; the region of sea-sand; and the alluvial soil. In such a wide extent of country, the productiveness of the soil necessarily varies. That of New-England is most fertile where it consists of black mould upon red loam or clay. The soil of New-York is more

fruitful than that of Maryland or New Jersey. Pennsylvania has every kind of soil. The states of Ohio and Kentucky contain the most fertile parts of the whole country; and the climate is even favorable to the culture of the vine. The Indiana and Illinois states are also distinguished by general fertility; and, in that of the Mississippi, the lands near the rivers are remarkably productive.

The objects of culture are numerous. Maize seems to be more generally cultivated than any other species of corn, not only because it is adapted to a greater variety of soils and situations than wheat, but because it usually yields double the produce. In the middle and western states, wheat of a very good quality is raised; but, in other parts, the crops often fail. Oats, rye, and barley, are raised in all the northern and in the upper districts of the southern states; and, of the last grain, two crops in a year are sometimes obtained. In the western parts of the country; very good hemp grows naturally, and it is cultivated, as well as flax, in all the states. Hops also grow in many parts, but do not seem to meet with that attention which they certainly deserve. The sugar-cane is more particularly cultivated in Georgia, the Mississippi state, and Louisiana. Rice also thrives in those provinces, and in Carolina. Tobacco flourishes in Virginia and Maryland, more than in the southern states. From the Roanoke to the Mississippi, cotton is so abundantly produced, that, after the full supply of domestic consumption, large quantities are exported; and the spontaneous growth of the mulberry-tree liberally furnishes the basis of an ornamental manufacture.

Notwithstanding the great progress which has been made in the clearing of land, very extensive forests still cover the territory of the United States. Many of them abound with oak-trees, of which twenty-six species are reckoned. The white oak is the best wood; what is called the rock chesnut oak, holds the next rank, and the live oak, being hard and durable, is much used in ship-building. Of pines, the best and the most abundant species is that which has long leaves, growing in the low grounds of the southern states. The white pine is a lofty and magnificent tree, found in the northern states and mountainous parts. The silver fir is chiefly esteemed for its resinous produce, which is considered as salutary in pulmonary disorders. The cypress and white cedar afford a light but useful wood for the construction of houses. That which is particularly styled the sugar maple is a common tree in the northern and middle states: it is the sap which furnishes the saccharine juice. The hickory, or the American nut-tree, is very frequently seen; but the wood is seldom used except for fuel, and few species supply palatable fruit. Of the birch, the ash, and the beech, some species are rarely used, while others supply useful wood for a variety of purposes. The wild orange-tree, a magnificent ever-green, embellishes the southern states. The wood of the wild cherry-tree is much employed for furniture, and that of the red mulberry in ship-building. Little use is made of the poplars or the willows, nor are the bays or laurels very serviceable as timber; but the white and the red elm afford very good materials to the artisan. The fruit of the cucumber-tree, steeped in brandy, is used as a febrifuge. A more beautiful and useful tree is the magnolia, which rises to the height of 80 feet: its white blossoms are succeeded by crimson cones, containing red seeds, which, falling from their cells, remain for several days suspended from the seed-vessel by a long silky thread.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] Few countries are better supplied in this respect than the territory of the United States. The streams of the

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greatest extent are the Missouri, Mississippi, Ohio, Potomac, the James, Delaware, and York rivers, the Savannah, Hudson, and Connecticut; but these and other rivers will more properly be noticed in the surveys of particular states. The great lakes are the Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie, and Ontario. The first (says Mr. Warden) is "the greatest body of fresh water on the face of the globe." Its length from east to west is about 380 miles, and its breadth 120. The navigation is, in many parts, rendered dangerous by rocks, and it is not well furnished with bays or harbours. It contains a number of islands, one of which is 90 miles long; but they are not desirable spots for habitation. It receives the waters of forty streams, which it discharges into Lake Huron by the strait of St. Mary; but the quantity which escapes by evaporation is so great, that not more than a tenth part, perhaps, passes through this channel. Lake Huron is 225 miles in length, and 175 in breadth; and it is so deep near the middle, that its waters are unfathomable. Near the strait which connects this lake with that of Michigan, is the isle of Michilimackinac, a fertile spot, defended by a fortress, which is the most northern military post in the United States. The length of the Michigan lake is about 225 miles: it has, on its north-west side, an extensive bay, which affords a fine harbour. Lake Erie is about 550 miles in circumference, and that of Ontario 425. These two lakes are connected by the Niagara river.

Over the northern parts of the country many smaller lakes are dispersed; among which it will be sufficient to mention those of Champlain and George. The former had on its shores several forts (well known during the revolutionary war), which have been since demolished; but Fort Frederic remains, commanding the passage of the lake, and Plattsburg also, near the lake, is a place of some strength.

METALS, MINERALS.] Iron ore may be found in every province; and mines of that metal are worked with great effect in New-England, New-York, New-Jersey, and other states. Copper has been found in many parts, particularly in the north-western territory: but so few of the mines are worked, that supplies of this metal are required and obtained from Mexico. The Missouri districts afford the greatest quantity of lead. Silver exists in various parts; but it does not appear that gold is found in any of the lands belonging to the republic; and certainly a country may flourish without possessing mines of that description. Mercury is a rare product; but Kentucky affords it, as well as plenty of nitre. With coal, lime, and salt, few countries are more amply provided than the western states.

ANIMALS.] The American zoology is varied and important, even though the wild animals may be thought to be of a less imposing stature and more insignificant than those of Africa and of Asia. Of the mammoth, a much larger animal than any of those which now exist in the United States, no traces are found except scattered bones. The cougar is not often found in these states; and the mountain cat, which is almost as fierce and strong as that animal, is of rare occurrence. Bears likewise are now uncommon, as their ravages in corn-fields and plantations roused a general zeal for their extermination. Wolves, for the same reason, are declining in number; and, probably, they will soon be seen only in the unsettled parts to the westward. They are taken by log-traps, into which the ravenous prowlers are decoyed by baits. Wolverenes are more common, particularly in the northern parts: they steal beavers from the traps, and kill the deer by tearing the jugular vein. Other wild animals are the lynx, fox, porcupine, ermine,

racoons, skunk or pole-cat, otter, and opossum. Elks are rarely seen to the eastward of the Mississippi: but, in the Missouri state, they appear in great numbers, feeding with buffaloes and red deer. The moose is sometimes confounded with the elk; but the horns of the former are palmated and spreading, not round or cylindrical. The horns, when full grown, are four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have shoots or branches, which sometimes spread about six feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays down his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way; and these prodigious horns are shed every year. He does not spring or rise in going, like an ordinary deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been seen to step over a gate five feet high. When unhounded, he will run a course of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to bay; but, when chased, he generally runs to the water. All the woody country, from Vermont to Louisiana, abounds with deer of a light-brown hue, which have slender round branched horns, bending forward, and are about the size of the European fallow deer. The tame quadrupeds are not so different from those of Great-Britain, as to require distinct notice. Among the birds of prey are eagles and vultures; and the more common sorts are in general mere varieties of the species found in Europe: but Mr. Wilson, who has diligently studied the ornithology of the United States, speaks of six *genera* as peculiar to the country; namely, the grackle, tanager, turkey, parrot, manakin, and humming-bird. He also claims, for the American birds which nearly resemble those of Europe, not only the praise of superior beauty, but greater musical merit. The mocking-bird, he says, can excel the nightingale in her own song, as he excels all other birds in their different melodies.

While the woods and fields display the beauties of plumage or resound with melody, they are rendered dreadfully insecure by the venom of the serpent tribe. The rattle-snake of North-America is well-known, and we have already described it; and many other serpents are found, sometimes in the middle states, but more frequently in the more southern parts of the country. Not only, however, will medicinal applications occasionally cure the bites of those reptiles; but Providence has kindly diminished the danger to which the inhabitants are exposed from their venom, by furnishing an enemy in the wild hog, by whom they are attacked and destroyed.

In consequence of the possession of a long range of coast, and a number of lakes and rivers, the American ichthyology is abundantly varied. Whales appear on the north-eastern coast; and there is a great fishery for those animals off the isle of Nantucket. The cod, salmon, halibut, sturgeon, pike, cat-fish, shad, black-fish, sheep's-head, rock-fish, perch, mullet, all sorts of shell-fish, and a great number of other tenants of the waters, are taken by the vigilant industry of the inhabitants. But, while these stores are poured out for their gratification, the southern rivers infest the country by harbouring alligators, or American crocodiles, which sometimes grow to the length of twelve feet, and, not satisfied with devouring inferior animals, venture, in the rage of hunger, to attack human beings. The caiman of Louisiana is an animal of the same species; but it very rarely assaults men, and is only dreaded by dogs and hogs.

POPULATION, MANNERS.] It has been frequently remarked, that population, if not materially checked by war, pestilence, or famine, will double itself in twenty years. In 1763, the thirteen colonies comprehended about 1,046,000 persons; and, though that number was not

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doubled even in twenty-seven years, yet, from 1780 to 1800, the increase far exceeded the ratio of mere duplication, proceeding from two to five millions. In 1810, above seven millions were officially enumerated: in 1820, the amount reached nine millions and a half; and, at the present time, it probably borders upon ten millions and a half. The most populous states are Virginia and New-York.

With regard to the character and manners of the people, it may seem invidious to speak freely: yet we cannot, on this occasion, employ the language of panegyric. Vanity, presumption, and an overweening confidence, are prominent features, which excite the notice of almost every stranger. An ungracious demeanor, illiberal selfishness, a cold disregard to the feelings of others, and a want of social urbanity, are strikingly prevalent. Undoubtedly, amidst such a varied population, there must be many exceptions, detracting from the *universality* of these characteristic remarks: but they seem to be true in their *general* application.

RELIGION.] In the United States, there is no religious establishment supported by the ruling power, as it was thought more just and prudent to leave religion to its own operations, than to endeavour to influence conscience or belief, by holding out a prospect of distinction or emolument to those who exercise the religion of the state. Notwithstanding this seeming neglect, the people in general are as religiously disposed as they are in most other countries. The Congregationalists and Presbyterians are the most numerous classes: both profess the Calvinistic doctrines; but the former have independent congregations, while the latter are subject to the government of synods and presbyteries. The Baptists are the next in point of number; and, in general, they are Calvinists in persuasion, and Independents in discipline. The Episcopalians are an increasing and respectable class, following the system of the church of England; and their affairs are regulated by a convention of two houses, one consisting of bishops, the other of clerical and laic delegates. Methodists, Quakers or Friends, members of the Dutch reformed church, German Calvinists and Lutherans, Moravians or United Brethren, Roman-catholics, Universalists or advocates of universal salvation, and other followers of varied schemes of Christianity, are dispersed over the republican territories. Jews are found in some parts of the country; but their amount is inconsiderable.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS.] Having mentioned the grand outlines of the federal government, we may remark, that the system of polity adopted by the republic is apparently calculated to secure the advantages of liberty; and that such abuses as gradually undermine freedom in other states which have ostensibly abjured despotism, have not had sufficient time for mischievous operation. Cabal and corruption, if it is said, prevail in all parts of the union; and a factious spirit is more observable than even in Great-Britain, the native soil of party: but this will appear to many to be the mere offspring of freedom.

The judicial part of the constitution is apparently correct in its frame, if it be not altogether pure and incorrupt in practice. The code which is principally followed consists of written law; namely, the constitution of the United States, the acts of congress and treaties. The unwritten law of a particular state may be adopted; but it is only by virtue of the written law that the adoption can be accomplished. The laws seem in general to correspond with those of England. Mr. Fearon says, upon what he terms good authority, that great corruption exists in the minor courts; and, as some of the judges are of a low stamp, there is probably some foundation for the charge. There are very few countries in

which justice is administered with that integrity which prevails in Great-Britain.

ARMY, NAVY, COMMERCE, REVENUE.] When the peace of the republic seemed to be fully secured, after the animated contest which established its independence, a very small regular force was maintained; but, when the nation rushed into a war in the year 1812, the troops were so far augmented, that the charges of the military department became twelve (instead of two) millions of dollars; and, in 1814, twenty millions and a half did not prove more than adequate to the demands of the state. In that year, the regular army amounted to 63,420 men; and it was proposed that 30,000 more should be raised; but the peace of Ghent prevented that alarming requisition. The present establishment is under 10,000.

The navy of the United States, at the beginning of the year 1812, consisted only of seven frigates, a few sloops, and some smaller vessels; but it was increased, in three years, to sixty-nine, including captured ships, without reckoning schooners and gun-boats. Only five of the ships had seventy-four guns; but the frigates were constructed upon so large a scale, as to be almost on a par with ships of the line.

In commerce and navigation, the Americans have made a great progress, since their acquisition of the advantages of independence. They have multiplied their trading vessels with the most sedulous zeal, and have visited every coast, without regard to distance or danger. Their exports, in 1800, were officially valued at 70,970,700 dollars, almost one-half of the amount consisting of articles of domestic growth, produce, or manufacture. In 1807, 108 millions formed the estimates; but they are now higher, having been very considerably augmented, in 1826, by the relaxation of the rigor of the British navigation-laws. The exports are, flour, Indian corn, rice, flax-seed, cotton, tobacco, pot-ash, timber, naval stores, animal products, &c.

Their internal trade also flourishes, in consequence of the number of navigable rivers, with the occasional aid of canals. Commodities are transported from Boston even to the Mexican territories, with surprising quickness, partly by waggons, and partly by steam-vessels, which the Americans first introduced.

From commercial duties the greatest part of the national revenue arises. That of the year 1816 was stated at 36,743,574 dollars, of which the customs formed three-fourths, the rest being procured by light and easy taxation, and by the sale of public lands. Most of the taxes imposed during the war have been repealed; and, though there have been fresh loans even in some years of peace, only four millions of dollars are requisite for the payment of the interest of the whole national debt. The expenditure, in 1823, did not exceed 15,200,000 dollars.

LITERATURE AND THE FINE ARTS.] By literary taste, or scientific profundity, the subjects of the United States are not remarkably distinguished: but they are improving in both respects. Works of some merit occasionally appear, and the transactions of societies and academies are periodically published. In no country is knowledge more diffused than by newspapers, the amount of which far exceeds the number annually produced in the British dominions; in no country, we may add, is greater attention paid by the government to general education. In the polite arts, there are few celebrated names: but we may observe, that West, the painter, is claimed by the Americans for their countryman; and that, though they have no good sculptors, they have some ingenious and skilful architects.

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DIFFERENT STATES, CHIEF TOWNS, &c.

THE MASSACHUSET STATE is distinguished by the possession of Boston, which was long considered as the capital of British America. This country is watered in its southern part by the Connecticut and Merrimac rivers, and, in the north, by the St. John and Kennebec. It is mountainous in many parts; but the greatest elevation does not exceed 4000 feet. Iron ore is found in great quantities in various parts of this state; copper ore, black lead, pipe-clay, yellow and red ochre, alum, and slate, are also among its products; and some mineral springs have been discovered at Sim and other places.

In this territory are to be found all the varieties of soil: it is capable of yielding, in abundance, Indian corn, rye, wheat, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hops, potatoes, field beans and peas, apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, &c.

Boston is situated on a peninsula of irregular form, at the extremity 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. In 1790, it contained 18,000 inhabitants; but the increase has since been so considerable, that above 33,000 are now reckoned, among whom there are no slaves, as the rulers of this state, many years ago, abolished slavery within its boundaries. The harbour is sufficiently capacious 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 are about eighty in number, and very convenient for vessels. The Charles-river and West-Boston bridges are highly useful and ornamental to the town: one is 1503 feet long, 42 feet broad, and stands on 75 piers; while the other, which is more elegant, rests on 180 piers, and is 3480 feet long. The view of the town, as it is approached from the sea, is 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 revolutionary war. On a rising ground at the upper part of the Mall (a space of 40 acres kept free from the exercise of the building *mania*), stands the State-house, a structure (says Mr. Duncan) "of humbler pretensions, as to size and materials, than the city-hall of New-York, but in situation and architectural outline greatly superior." The same writer speaks favorably of the general character of the Bostonians, though he is disgusted at their propensity to the Socinian doctrines; and in a literary point of view, he says, their city is far before any other American town.

Plymouth was the first town built in New-England, and is 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 national monument. The situation of the town is pleasant and healthful.

Many important manufactures are carried on by the people of this state. Ship-building is eagerly prosecuted: arms are skilfully fabricated; cabinet-work, tin-plate-work, earthen-ware, various articles in brass and steel, optical and musical instruments, clocks and watches, are well prepared both for foreign and domestic trade. Amidst this attention to profitable employment, literature and science, as we before hinted, are not neglected. At Cambridge, four miles from Boston, there is an university

which generally has from 250 to 300 students; and, as to its library, philosophical apparatus, and professorships, it is the most distinguished literary institution on this continent, though it is thought by many to be inferior in its discipline and arrangements to Yale College. It takes date from the year 1638.

In May 1780, the Massachusetts legislature passed an act for incorporating and establishing an academy for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and sciences. Other societies that tend to enlighten the state, and which reflect credit upon the citizens, are connected with the pursuit of natural history, the improvement of medicine, the diffusion of political learning and general knowledge, and the propagation of religious truth.

MAINE, which was long included in the Massachusetts state, now enjoys the advantage of a distinct government. The country is barren in the inland parts, but fruitful on the banks of the rivers and near the sea. The heat is intense in the summer, and the cold of the winter is exceedingly severe. Portland, the chief town, has a very good harbour, and flourishes in point of trade. With regard to the people, it appears that they are orderly, industrious, and hospitable.

NEW-HAMPSHIRE, situated to the westward of the district of Maine, is intersected by several ridges of mountains, among which are the Blue Hills, and those which divide the Connecticut and Merrimac rivers, denominated the *Height of Land*; but the White or Snowy Mountains which run through this state, are undoubtedly the highest in all New-England. Their height is 3500 feet above an adjacent meadow, which is itself 3500 above the level of the sea. The most elevated point, which makes a majestic appearance along the shores of Massachusetts, has been distinguished by the name of Mount Washington. Iron, lead, and copper, are found in this state. It also produces red and yellow ochre, steatites or soap-rock, the best lapis specularis, a kind of talc, commonly called isinglass; crystal, alum, vitriol, free-stone, and blacklead.

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: but it is extremely cold in winter, and in summer the heat is great, though of short duration. The shore is mostly a sandy beach, adjoining to which are salt marshes, intersected by creeks, which produce good pasture. The wide-spreading hills are warm and rich; cattle thrive on the rocky moist land; the drained swamps have a deep mellow soil, and the valleys are generally very productive. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. Corn, hops, and hemp, are raised in great quantities, and the uncultivated lands are covered with forests of pine, cedar, oak, &c.

Portsmouth is the chief town of this state. Its harbour is one of the finest on the continent, having a sufficient depth of water for vessels of any burthen, 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 flourishing town, pleasantly situated on the Merrimac.

The constitution of New-Hampshire, like that of the Massachusetts state, provides for the existence of a senate and a body of representatives, and for the election of a governor and a council of state by the people. This, indeed, forms the government of every one of the North-American states; but, in the territories which are not yet admitted in due form into the union, the president and the congress depute a distinguished citizen to exercise the administrative functions. Slavery is not prohibited in

this state; and the condition are the

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CONNECTICUT, and stretches across the state, and the Taconic range of dolomite, in this state in Massachusetts there are many people, in the

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Yale College it was founded and published at

this state; but there are few slaves, and those who remain in that condition are treated with humanity.

RHODE-ISLAND, including Providence plantation, is one of the smallest members of the confederacy, possessing only an area of 1580 square miles. The chief rivers are Providence and Taunton. Iron ore is found in great plenty in several parts of this state; there is also a mine of copper, mixed with iron, strongly impregnated with loadstone. It is as healthy a country as any in America. The winters, in the maritime parts, are milder than in the inland country, the air being softened by a sea vapor, which also enriches the soil. The summers are delightful, the heat being allayed by breezes from the sea.

The principal towns are Providence and Newport. The former is situated at the head of Narraganset bay, and is a large and handsome town, containing several elegant buildings, and about 6750 inhabitants. It had two philosophical societies, which are now united.—Newport stands at the south-west end of Rhode-Island. A fine harbour spreads westward before the town, and the entrance is easy and safe.

The town of Bristol prosecutes a considerable trade with Africa, the West-Indies, and different parts of the United States; but the chief commerce of Rhode-Island is at present carried on by the inhabitants of Providence. The exports are, flax-seed, lumber, horses, cattle, grain, provisions of various kinds, cotton, and linen; and the imports consist of European and West-Indian goods, and log-wood from the bay of Honduras.

CONNECTICUT is situated to the south of the Massachuset state, and stretches 90 miles along the coast. The river of that name traverses the province, and the country is also fertilised by the Housatonic and the Thames. Ores of iron, copper, and lead; native silver, containing arsenic, and united with bismuth; marble, and fine red stone; dolomite, or magnesian lime-stone; jasper, beryl, and garnets, are found in this state. The climate and vegetable produce are nearly the same as in Massachuset. The inhabitants are almost entirely of English descent: there are no Dutch, French, or Germans, and very few Scottish or Irish people, in any part of the state.

There are many pleasant towns, both maritime and inland, in Connecticut. It contains five cities, which have extensive jurisdiction in civil causes. Two of these, Hartford and New-Haven, are alternate capitals of the state. The former is regularly built, and the streets intersect each other at right angles. The other cities are New-London, Norwich, and Middleton. In the small towns and villages, the houses are generally built of wood, sometimes with only one story; their sides are painted white; their sloping roofs are covered with shingles; and painted of a slate color; and, with sash windows, green Venetian shades on the outside, neat rails and steps, they make a pretty appearance. The country is well cultivated, and the people seem to enjoy competence and comfort.

All religions that are consistent with the peace of society are tolerated in Connecticut; yet there are few sectarian varieties in this state. The bulk of the people are congregationalists, and there are also episcopalians and baptists.

Yale college, at New-Haven, is a respectable seminary of learning; it was founded in the year 1701. Academies have likewise been established at Greenfield, Plainfield, Norwich, Windham, and other places.

Almost every town in the state is divided into districts, and each district has a public school kept in it during a greater or less part of every year. A thirst for learning prevails among all ranks of people; and more of the young men, in proportion to their number, receive a public education, than in any other state.

VERMONT is an inland country, and is hilly, but not rocky. To the west-ward of the mountains is a very spacious tract, well adapted for tillage. The land is well watered, and affords the best pasturage; very fine oxen are reared in this state: horses also are bred for exportation. Birch, sugar-maple, ash, butter-nut, white oak of an excellent quality, and many other trees, are abundantly furnished. The soil is well fitted for wheat, rye, barley, oats, flax, hemp, &c.

Mines of iron are worked in this state with skill and effect. Jasper, pyrites, fine porcelain clay, and beautiful marble, are found in various parts; and among the curiosities may be mentioned a natural stone bridge, affording a passage over the river Lamoille.

There are few towns in this state. The most populous place is Bennington; but Windsor and Rutland are more dignified, being alternately the seats of the legislature. With regard to the manners and habits of the people, Mr. Warden says, "Every member of the family is actively employed. The labors of the field are performed only by the men, except in harvest, when the women assist. Mothers nurse their own children, and the young daughters cook, spin, weave, and knit. In winter, the favorite amusement is dancing. The farmer and day-laborer partake of the same fare. Like the inhabitants of most new countries, they are hardy, industrious, frugal, and jealous of their freedom."

NEW-YORK is an extensive and flourishing province. Its length, from east to west, is about 310 miles, and its breadth 290. It boasts of the Hudson or North River, which rises in an elevated spot to the west of Lake Champlain, and flows into the sea after a course of 250 miles. It is navigable, for sloops of eighty tons, to Albany, and for ships to the city of Hudson. On the Mohawk, which joins it above Albany, is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which falls thirty feet perpendicular; but, including the descent above, the fall is sixty feet.

Great quantities of iron ore are found in this state; and a silver-mine has been worked at Philipsburg. The mineral springs of Ballstown, Saratoga, and New Lebanon, are in great repute. The springs of Onondago produce excellent salt; and a spring has been discovered in the Susquehannah county, impregnated with nitre.

This province enjoys a favorable temperature of climate. The air is healthy, and agrees with almost every constitution. Though the face of the country is low, flat, and marshy toward the sea, yet, 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 fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruit, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is nearly the same with that of New-England.

The city of New-York stands on the south-west end of York Island, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, admirably situated 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 toward Canada and the lakes. The city is in length above two miles,

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and its mean breadth about a mile. It is 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; but most parts of the town are irregularly built. A great proportion of the inhabitants, who probably amount to 73,000, are the posterity of those Dutch families which remained here after the surrender of the New Netherlands to the English. The state of society and manners, in this city, may thus be sketched. The men are fond of social meetings, and prone to indulgence both in eating and drinking, more particularly in the latter practice; they are more civil than polite, more good-humored than friendly. The ladies are not deficient in personal attractions; their manners are agreeable, and they dress with neatness and elegance, without closely copying the fashions either of London or Paris.

Albany, being situated on a fine river, at the head of sloop-navigation, surrounded with a rich country, and the storehouse of the trade with Canada and the lakes, cannot but flourish in wealth and consequence.

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. It contains a great number of persons who are employed in various manufactures, particularly wheel-carriages, cadlery, cabinet-work, cutlery, glass, clocks, watches, mathematical and musical instruments.

A college was erected at New-York, by act of parliament, in the year 1754; 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, beside those who devote themselves to medicine. Union College was established at Shenectady in 1794, which has now about ninety votaries of learning; and, in 1812, that of Hamilton, in Oneida county, was founded. There are also, in different parts of the state, eleven incorporated academies; and it is provided that schools shall be established, one at least in every district of four square miles. A respectable society, of a literary and philosophical description, was founded in the capital, in 1815; history is peculiarly cultivated by another association; an academy has been formed for the promotion of the fine arts, and another for natural history.

NEW-JERSEY extends about 150 miles to the east of Pennsylvania. Its chief rivers are the Hackensac, Rariton, and Passaic; on the last of which is a cataract: the height of the rock from which the water falls is about 70 feet perpendicular. The climate is nearly 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 excellent wheat, barley, rye, and Indian corn. In this state are many iron-mines, and in Bergen county is a very valuable mine of copper.

Trenton is the capital of New-Jersey; but it neither flourishes in trade nor in population. The chief manufactures of the province are those of iron, leather, glass, woollen, and cotton. Agriculture is the most prevalent pursuit; and, at the same time, learning is not despised or disregarded; for there are two colleges, and sixteen incorporated academies; and a literary and philosophical society was instituted in 1825.

PENNSYLVANIA is in the form of a parallelogram, 280 miles long, and 160 broad. Its rivers are, the Delaware, which is navigable more than two hundred miles above Philadelphia; the Susquehannah and Schuylkill; which, with the numerous creeks in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largest fleets, render this state admirably suited to carry on an inland and foreign trade. Iron-ore abounds in the province; and copper and lead are found in some places. Lime-stone is common, as are also several kinds of marble; and in the middle and western parts of the country there is abundance of coal. 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 favor of Pennsylvania. The air is sweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are so extremely cold, that the 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 good wine, though the savages from them make a sort of wine, with which they regale themselves. It may also be observed of the timber of these states, that toward 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, however, while it renders it less serviceable for ships, makes it more useful for staves.

The Pennsylvanians are principally the descendants of English, Irish, and Germans, beside the posterity of Scots, Dutch, Swiss, Swedes, and Danes. 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 almost one-quarter of the inhabitants; they are of various persuasions, but resemble each other in the habits of temperance, sobriety, industry, and œconomy. The Baptists are chiefly the offspring of emigrants from Wales, and are not numerous. A proportionate assemblage of the national prejudices, manners, customs, religious and political sentiments of all these, may be said to form the Pennsylvanian character.

Pennsylvania contains several very considerable towns, such as Lancaster, Carlisle, and Pittsburg: but Philadelphia eclipses the rest. This city was built according to the plan of the famous William Penn. It is situated about 110 miles from the sea, by the course of the bay and river, and 55 in the south-east direction. It forms 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, about five miles in a right line above the confluence of those rivers. It is intersected by a great number of streets crossing each other at right angles. Of these there were originally nine, which were crossed by twenty-three, running north and south. The squares formed by these streets, in the original plan, were 184; but, as several of them have lately been intersected by new streets, the number now exceeds 300. The greater part of the city is well paved with brick, and furnished with common sewers and gutters, so that the streets are, in general, kept very clean and neat. The houses are

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generally of brick, three stories high, constructed in a plain decent style, without much display of ornament. The state-house is a magnificent building; an elegant court-house, or town-hall, stands on the left of the state-house, and, on the right, a philosophical hall; and two public banks, one merely provincial, the other for the United States, have been erected in a fine style of Grecian architecture. The population of this city is about 77,000, and it contains 65 places of worship.

Philadelphia abounds with useful institutions. The university was organised on a plan proposed by Dr. Franklin, which has since been improved by the suggestions of others. The medical school belonging to this seminary has long enjoyed great celebrity. There are also eight free-schools, a philosophical society, an academy for the fine arts, and many charitable institutions; and the prison is celebrated for its admirable regulations; for, instead of being a scene of idleness, debauchery, and profanity, it is a place of well-conducted labor, and a school of reformation. In this state, by a very proper and laudable regulation, no offences are capitally punished, except murder and the burning of a house; and crimes have since declined both in frequency and in atrocity.

The DELAWARE state is a small tract along that river, comprehending only 2200 square miles. The air is in general healthy; but in some parts, where there are large quantities of stagnant water, it is insalubrious. The soil along the river, and as far as eight or ten miles in the interior country, is a rich clay, adapted to the purposes of agriculture: thence to the swamps it is light, sandy, and of an inferior quality. Wheat grows here in such perfection, as not only to be particularly sought by dealers in flour throughout the Union, but also to be distinguished and preferred for its superior qualities in foreign markets. This territory also produces abundant crops of Indian corn, barley, rye, oats, flax, and potatoes.

Dover, being the seat of government, is considered as the capital; but Wilmington is the most considerable town in the state; yet it is said to contain only 3500 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in squares, like Philadelphia.

MARYLAND is divided by the bay of Chesapeak, which is 180 miles in length, and has on each side many navigable branches. The greatest branch is the Potowmac, forming the western boundary of this province. The climate is warm, and the soil in general fertile. Annapolis, the capital, exhibits many elegant mansions, and a noble state-house; but it has not more than 2500 inhabitants. Baltimore is the largest town in this state, and has a population of 40,000; it stands on the north side of the Patapsco, at a small distance from its junction with the Chesapeak, around one of the finest harbours in America. It boasts of an academy of science and literature, founded in 1821. The trade of Maryland is principally carried on from this town with the other states, with the West Indies, and with some parts of Europe. The planters and merchants export tobacco, wheat, flour, pig-iron, lumber, and flax seed; and receive, in return, clothing for themselves and their slaves, wine, spirits, sugar, and other commodities. The balance is generally in their favor.

The catholics, who have a cathedral and a college at Baltimore, continue to predominate in Maryland; but they tolerate all the protestant sects. The Episcopalians and Presbyterians are next to them in point of number. Several colleges flourish under their sway, particularly those of Washington and St. John, at Chestertown and Annapolis, which jointly compose the university of Maryland.

VIRGINIA possesses great natural advantages. It abounds with minerals; it has a multitude of rivers, and a fertile soil: but the climate is not the most desirable. In the summer the heat is excessive, though not without refreshing breezes from the sea. The weather is changeable, and the changes are sudden and violent. The frosts come on without the least warning. A warm day is sometimes succeeded by such an intense cold in the evening as will 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, the air is usually clear and dry. The spring is about a month earlier than in England; in April there are frequent rains; in May and June the heat increases; and the summer is, for some weeks, like that which we enjoy: but, in July and August, the air becomes stagnant, and violently hot. In September the weather generally changes, and heavy rains ensue, which occasion all the train of diseases incident to a moist climate. Thunder and lightening are here frequent, but not very mischievous.

Among the Virginian rivers, are the James, York, and Rappahanoc. The first has many navigable branches; and the three streams, at several places, approach within a mile of each other. Where the navigation is interrupted by rapids and falls, short canals supply the desired continuity. The forests of this country abound with all sorts of lofty trees, and no underwood or bushes grow amidst them; so that people travel with ease through them on horseback, under a fine shade, which defends them from the sun: the plains are enameled with flowers and flowering shrubs of the richest colors, and most fragrant scent. Silk grows spontaneously, the fibres of which are as strong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the snake-root and ginseng, are here in great plenty; and there is no sort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage.

Unfavorable accounts are given of the generality of the people of this state. The young men are said to be gamblers, jockeys, and fond of brutal sports. At almost all the taverns or inns on the public roads there are billiard-tables and back-gammon boards, cards, and other implements for various games. A passion for the barbarous diversion of cock-fighting is particularly predominant. This dissipation of manners is the consequence of indolence and luxury, which are the fruit of African slavery. Mr. Warden makes no mention of these diversions; but says, that "the amusements of the Virginians are hunting the deer and the fox, also horse-racing, ball-playing, fowling, and dancing." He also affirms, that the "horrible practice of *gouging*, or putting out the eye by an artful exertion of the thumb, has entirely ceased."

The principal towns of Virginia are, Richmond, the capital, Williamsburg, and Norfolk. Richmond contains 500 houses, and about 4500 inhabitants. Williamsburg is regularly laid out in parallel streets, with a pleasant square in the centre, 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, and has a safe and commodious harbour. The houses in the towns are generally of scantling and boards, lathed and plastered within, and painted on the outside; and the roofs are covered with shingles. The habitations of the poor are log-huts, the interstices of the wood being filled up with mud; but the rich planters build, more substantially, of brick or stone.

There is a college at Williamsburg, founded by king William III., who gave two thousand pounds toward the building, and twenty thousand acres of land for the endowment. It has a president, six professors, and

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other officers. The academy in Prince-Edward county has been erected into a college by the name of Hampden-Sidney college; but it will only accommodate sixty students.

Mr. Jefferson, who was for some years president of the United States, and distinguished himself in that honorable station by his ability and public virtue, resolved to devote a great part of his property to the erection of an university, on a better plan and with more judicious arrangements than those which already appeared in the collegiate seminaries of Virginia. It is situated at the foot of a mountain, near Charlotte-ville, and consists of four parallel ranges of handsome buildings in the Grecian style, comprehending *pavilions* (as the lodgings of the professors are called), hotels, and chambers for 212 students; and, for the promotion of health, a gymnasium has been added to the institution. This great undertaking has been promoted by the liberality of the government, and promises to flourish in utility and in fame.

From the states of Virginia and Maryland a small tract was withdrawn, in 1801, for the formation of a distinct territory, called COLUMBIA. A stately edifice, bearing the classic name of the Capitol, had been previously erected for the meetings of the legislature, at the confluence of the Potowmac with its eastern branch, on a pleasant and picturesque, if not a healthy spot; and a considerable town quickly rose into existence, which received the honored name of Washington. It was built on a regular plan, upon such portions of land as were ceded to the state by private proprietors, who expected to reimburse themselves by the augmented value of the remaining part. The private houses are neat and commodious; but there are few which are particularly handsome. The public buildings were exposed to hostile outrage, in 1814, by the success of a body of British invaders, who, in revenge for that aggression which produced the war, set fire to the hall of assembly, the president's house, the treasury, war-office, navy-yard, and other useful and ornamental parts of the new city; but the mischief has since been repaired, in a better style of architecture. The city is said, without reckoning the suburbs, to contain about 13,500 inhabitants. It extends from the north-west to the south-east about four miles and a half, and from the north-east to the south-west about two and a half; but the houses are thinly scattered over this wide space. The Pennsylvania-street is 160 feet in breadth, and a mile in length. A canal has been cut through the city, on which passage-boats ply; and a strong but not elegant bridge connects the town with the western side of the river. It is said, that the chief object of this change of the capital was, to secure the legislature from insult or intimidation, by fixing its meetings in a place which is under the immediate control and authority of the congress.

NORTH-CAROLINA, in its whole width, for sixty miles from the sea, is perfectly level. A great proportion of this tract lies in forests, and is barren; but on the banks of some of the rivers, particularly of the Roanoke, the land is fertile. The western hilly parts of the state are also fruitful, abounding with springs and rivulets; and through the other parts are glades of rich swamp, and ridges of good oak-land. Sixty miles from the sea, the country rises into hills and mountains. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, and flax, grow well in the back hilly settlements; Indian corn in all parts. Cotton and hemp are also considerably cultivated, and might be raised in much greater plenty. The cotton

is planted yearly; for the stalk dies with the frost. The labor 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.

Newbern is the largest town in North-Carolina, and was formerly the residence of the governor: its population is 2450. Edenton, Wilmington, Halifax, Hillsborough, Salisbury, and Fayette-ville, have, each in its turn, been the seats of the general assembly. Raleigh, which stands near the centre of the state, has lately been established as the capital, though it is an insignificant town in point of extent and population.

Before the American revolution, the inhabitants of this province were attached to brutal diversions and barbarous practices, particularly boxing, gouging, and cock-fighting: but this is not the general character of the present race. From the charge of intemperance, however, they cannot so easily be vindicated. They are fond of drinking spirits undiluted, particularly whisky and peach-brandy; and, indeed, in almost every state of the union, this practice is shamefully prevalent.

North Carolina has the honor and the advantage of an university. It is situated on Chapel hill, in Orange county, and generally has about a hundred students, though there are only two professors. A medical society was incorporated in 1800; and there are academies of considerable reputation at Warren-town and other places.

SOUTH-CAROLINA is traversed by ranges of finely-wooded mountains; and the coast is bordered with a chain of 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 land, to the extent of eighty miles from the sea, is low and level, and little better than an unhealthy salt-marsh; but the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at the distance of 100 miles from Charle--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 less violent than on the flat sandy coast.

This province is watered by many navigable rivers, the principal of which are the Savannah, Santee, Edisto, Pedee, and their branches. The first forms the boundary on the side of Georgia. It rises from two sources in the Apalachian mountains, and pursues a south-east course to the Atlantic. The Santee flows in the same direction through the middle of the state. It is remarkable that the great branches of this river are each wider than the channel of their united streams.

South-Carolina abounds with lead, copper, and iron; but it is the misfortune of the operators, that they are deficient in the knowledge of chemistry, and do not properly extract the respective metals. There are likewise rock-crystal, pyrites, marble beautifully variegated, abundance of chalk, crude alum, nitre, and vitriol.

The climate, as in all this part of America, admits sudden transitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat, but not to such violent extremities as in Virginia. The winters are seldom so severe as 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

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they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-town, and excellent in their kinds, both sweet and sour. The salubrity of the air varies in different parts. Along the coast, bilious diseases, and fevers of various kinds, are prevalent between July and October; one cause of which is the low marshy country, overflowed for the sake of cultivating rice. The upper country, being in the medium between extreme heat and cold, is as healthful as any part of the United States.

The vegetable productions of this state are wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, oranges, citrons, cypress, saxifrage, oak, walnut, cassia, and pine-trees; and white mulberry trees for feeding silk-worms. 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. Nothing surprises an European more at first sight than the size of the trees here, as well as in Virginia, and other American provinces. Their trunks are often from fifty to sixty feet high, without a branch or limb; and sometimes above thirty-six feet in circumference. Of these trunks when hollowed, the people of Charles-town, as well as the savages, make canoes which serve to transport provisions from one place to another; 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.

Charles-town, the capital of this state, is situated at the confluence of two rivers, one of which is navigable for shiips 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 prevents vessels of more than 200 tons burthen, loaded, from entering. The streets intersect each other at right angles; and those which run east and west extend three quarters of a mile from one river to another. In some of the streets the houses are lofty, handsome, and spacious, adorned with balconies and verandas; but, in other parts of the town, the habitations are of a very inferior description. Trees, of that species which is called the Pride of India, are planted along the paths, and afford, by their large leaves and spreading branches, shelter from the solar heat, while the poisonous qualities of the leaves prevent insects from harbouring upon them. About 24,500 persons, among whom are more people of color than whites, compose the population.

Columbia is a small town in Kershaw county, on the east side of the Congaree, 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 is retained in Charles-town.

Since the revolution, by which all denominations were put on an equal footing, there have been no disputes among religious sects. They all agree to differ. The upper parts of this state are settled chiefly by presbyterians, baptists, and methodists. The episcopalians and independents are also scattered over the province.

The literature of this state is not very flourishing; but the desire of education rapidly increases; and, though there are some colleges which are not encouraged, others, particularly that of Columbia, are well frequented. A literary and philosophical society was formed at Charles-town in 1814, which promises to be useful to the community.

GEORGIA is a large, but not well-peopled province, having only 70,000 inhabitants upon an area of 60,000 square miles. Its coast is bordered with fertile islands; and its chief rivers, beside the Savannah

are the Ogechee and Alatomaha. The climate is warmer than that of South Carolina; and the winter is the most pleasant season. The eastern part is level, without a hill or stone; but, at the distance of 40 or 50 miles from the salt-marsh, the lands begin to be more or less uneven, until they gradually rise to mountains. The termination of the Apalachian chain is in Georgia; and, from its lower part, a spacious plain of, the richest soil extends, 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. Beside these, the country yields cotton, silk, Indian corn, potatoes, oranges, figs, olives, and pomegranates; and the south-western parts, with the neighbouring territory of Florida, will probably, says Dr. Morse, become the vineyard of America. The forests chiefly consist of oak, hickory, mulberry, pine, and cedar.

The principal towns are Savannah, Augusta, and Louis-ville. Savannah, formerly the capital of the state, is commodiously situated both for inland and foreign trade, seventeen miles from the sea, on the river of the same name, which is navigable for boats above 200 miles. Ships of the burthen of 300 tons 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; it contained, in 1787, only 2,300 inhabitants; but, in 1810, it had 5200, and it is now inhabited by a much greater number. Augusta was for some time the seat of government; but it is not large or populous, though it is the medium of trade between the lower and upper parts of the state. Louis-ville, on the Ogechee, is now the place of meeting for the legislature.

With regard to the religion of the Georgians, it appears that the presbyterian system has the predominance; and the methodists are the next in point of number; but there are very few regular ministers among the different sects. The task of general education is not neglected by the rulers of the state. There is an university at Athens, in Clarke county, and academies are established in various parts of the country.

KENTUCKY is nearly equal to Pennsylvania in dimensions, and yet contains only 410,000 inhabitants, one half of the population of the other province. It is well watered by many branches of the Ohio, without being rendered unhealthy by a profusion of humidity. The people do not experience the extremes of heat and cold, none of the neighbouring states enjoying so constant a temperature.

There are some iron mines in this state; but the metal is of an inferior quality. Lead ore is found in some parts; and there are many caverns which afford large supplies of nitre. The soil is so fertile, that the lands of the first rate are too rich for wheat, and will produce 50, 60, and, in some instances, 100 bushels of corn for every 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.

The banks, or rather precipices, of the rivers Kentucky and Dick, may be reckoned among natural curiosities. Here the delighted eye beholds 300 feet of solid perpendicular rock, in some parts, of the limestone kind, and in others of fine white marble, curiously chequered with *strata* of astonishing regularity. In various parts caves are found amazingly large, in some of which you may travel several miles under a rock, supported by extraordinary arches and pillars. In most of them run rapid streams.

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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, it answers all the purposes of the finest oil.

Kentucky contains no very large towns; the principal are Lexington, Louis-ville, Washington, and Frankfort. Lexington contains about 4250 inhabitants. Frankfort, which is now the seat of government, is less populous. Louis-ville, on the Ohio, is a thriving town, and a port of entry; and between this place and New-Orleans steam-boats regularly convey passengers and goods, ascending in twenty-five days, and descending in eight or nine.

Almost all the commerce of this state is carried on by the merchants of Lexington. Most of the fabricated articles consumed in Kentucky, as well as in other parts of the United States, are imported from Great-Britain. They consist principally of coarse and fine iron goods, cutlery, nails, and tin-ware; drapery, mercery, drugs, and fine pottery. Muslin, nankin, tea, &c. are imported directly from India in American vessels; and they obtain coffee and sugar from the West Indies. These are exchanged for the produce of the country, principally by barter, on account of the scarcity of coin.

The legislature of Virginia, while Kentucky belonged to that state, made provision for a college in it, and endowed it with considerable funds. It is called the Transylvanian University, and comprehends five professorships in the following departments—natural and moral philosophy, mathematics, classical learning, and the modern languages. Many academies have been incorporated: common schools are established in every county; and so general is education throughout this state, that it is not easy to find a white person who cannot read or write.

TENNESSEE is so well watered, that scarcely any part of it is distant above twenty miles from a navigable stream. It is crossed by the Cumberland mountain, which exhibits in different parts amazing piles of craggy rocks. In one place particularly, near the summit, there is a remarkable ledge of rock, about twenty-five miles in length, and 200 feet thick, showing a perpendicular face to the south-east, more noble and grand than any artificial fortification, and nearly equal in point of apparent regularity. Through this stupendous pile, according to a modern hypothesis, it was necessary for the waters of all the upper branches of the Tennessee to force their way.

Iron ore abounds in several districts, and some lead-mines have been discovered. The savages 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 particular spot is not pointed out. Springs, strongly impregnated with sulphur, are found in various parts.

The climate is in general healthful. The summers are cool and pleasant on the eastern side of the mountainous range; while, on the other side, the heat is much greater, which renders that part better calculated for the production of tobacco, cotton, and indigo. The soil is luxuriant, and will afford every production which is the growth of any of the United States. The usual crop of cotton is 800 pounds to the acre, of a long and fine staple; and of corn from 60 to 80 bushels.

A few years since, this country abounded with large herds of bisons, but the improvident or ill-disposed colonists destroyed multitudes of them out of mere wantonness. They are still to be found near some of

the southern branches of Cumberland river. The elk and the moose are seen in many places, chiefly among the mountains; but the ordinary species of deer are so scarce, that no person makes a business of hunting them for their skins only. Too many bears and wolves yet remain; and alligators have been seen in a branch of the Cumberland.

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 last were remarkable for having uniformly six toes each, one only excepted, which appeared to be the print of a negro's foot. One track was very large; the length of the feet sixteen inches, the distance of the extremities of the outer toes thirteen inches. One horse-track was of an uncommon size. The transverse and conjugate diameters were eight by ten inches; perhaps the horse which the great warrior rode. What seems to corroborate the opinion of their being the real tracks of the animals which they represent, is the circumstance of the horses' feet having slipped several inches, and recovered their position, and the figures having all the same direction. If it be a *lusus Natureæ*, 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, or some battle fought on the spot. The vast heaps of stones near the place, seem to favor the latter supposition. The texture of each rock 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.

The chief towns are Knox-ville, Nash-ville, and Jones-borough: but all of them are small, and scantily peopled. The first is appropriated to the deliberations of the senate and representative body, while the second has the greatest share of trade. Four colleges have been endowed: that which more particularly flourishes is at Green-ville, in Green county.

THE OHIO state derives its name from that great river which is formed by the union of the Monongahela and Aleghany streams, and which, receiving fifteen considerable rivers in its progress, runs above 1000 miles to join the Missisipi, within the 37th degree of northern latitude. Its area is about 40,000 square miles; and it is said to have, in proportion to its extent, more land capable of cultivation, than any other state of the union. The climate is generally mild and temperate. Springs and considerable streams abound in this territory: it produces many of the finest trees that are indigenous to America; and 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, and partridges, are, from observation, believed to be in greater plenty here than the tame poultry are in any of the old American settlements.

The remains of ancient fortifications, found in this country, excite the admiration of the curious. At Cincinnati there is a circular embank-

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ment, 800 feet in diameter, thirty at the base, and from three to six in height; and walls, partly built of stone, enclosing a great extent of ground, appear in many parts; and arrow-heads of flint, spear-heads of copper, stone hatchets, and various utensils, formed of pounded shells and clay, have been dug up. At Piqua are five circular works and an elliptical enclosure. One, which is situated on the eastern bank of the Miami, is 125 feet in diameter, and has a most commanding position on the brow of a hill. It is covered with large trees, and on the top of the parapet was the trunk of a tree which had evidently grown long after the rampart was constructed, and which, from the number of concentric layers of the trunk, major Long and his exploring associates concluded to have been at least 500 years old when it was felled. Speaking of these works, professor Keating says, "We are well warranted, from all their characters, in assigning to them an antiquity of more than a thousand years." These appear to have been military fortifications; but, at no great distance from them, traces of a work were discovered, which seemed to be a religious monument.

The capital bears the name of Cincinnati. It contains about 3250 inhabitants, who carry on various manufactures, particularly in the woollen and cotton branches, cordage, and glass. It has an university, which, however, is upon a small scale. There is one at Athens (on a peninsula formed by the Hockhocking river), which promises to be more considerable.

The increase of population, in this state, has been very rapid. It is said to have been only 3000 in 1791; it amounted to 42,000 in 1800; and it now exceeds 275,000, exclusive of the savages, of whom scarcely 3000 are reckoned. The chiefs of the Wyandots and other tribes, in 1817, ceded to the encroaching republic all the lands which they possessed between Lake Erie and the Ohio, to the extent of seven millions of acres; and they are at present confined to the north-west corner of the province.

To the honor of the Ohio government, involuntary servitude is abolished. A slave no sooner touches the soil of this state, than he becomes free, as in Great-Britain; but he is not allowed to exercise the right of suffrage; and both negroes and mulattoes are precluded (by an ordinance which is not altogether just or liberal) from giving evidence against white persons.

The state of INDIANA is 280 miles long and 150 broad, but is not populous in proportion to its great extent. Along the Wabash, and most of the rivers that water this state, there are tracts of rich alluvial soil, which terminate in meadows, rising considerably above the former, adorned with copses of beautiful shrubs, and bounded by lofty forests. With some exceptions, the soil is fruitful; and, in the opinion of general Harrison, the finest country in all the western world is that which is bounded to the eastward by Wayne, Franklin, and other counties of Indiana. In the upper parts, the climate is very friendly to health. Among the mineral products are iron, copperas, and coal; the sulphates of pot-ash and magnesia have been found in several caves, and salt-petre is also abundant. The forests are full of the finest trees, and abound with deer; but they at the same time afford shelter to bears and wolves; and the rattle-snake and copper-head snake, which are rarely seen on the low lands, infest the woody country. There are very few towns in this province; and the settlements extend chiefly along the Ohio, the branches of the Great Miami, the Wabash, and the White-water. Corydon is

the seat of government. Forts have been erected to guard against the hostilities of the savages, who, having only sold or relinquished certain parts of the territory, claim the sovereignty of the rest. Their numbers have been thinned by the military operations of the colonists, who, prompted by selfish rapacity and intolerant jealousy, will probably soon drive the occupants of Indiana to the Rocky Mountains, or reduce them to absolute subjection.

LOUISIANA is bounded on the east by the Missisipi, on the south by the gulf of Mexico, and on the west by the new Mexican state. Beside the great river which we have mentioned, the Missouri, the St. Francis, the Black and Red Rivers, and many other fine streams, increase the natural fertility of the soil. The Missisipi (that is, the mother of the waters) rises within the 48th degree of northern latitude, and between 95 and 96 degrees of western longitude; and its various windings are supposed to include 2000 miles: but its course is much shorter than that of the Missouri, which originates in the rocky or stony mountains, and joins it near the town of St. Louis. As the Missouri is a longer, broader, and deeper river than the Missisipi, and, after the junction, preserves its muddy turbulence, without partaking of the clearness of its companion, it may more properly be said to receive than to flow into it; and, therefore, the grand stream which enters the gulf ought rather to be called the Missouri, though established custom has given it the name of the Missisipi.

The climate of this extensive country is necessarily different in various parts. In the north, the cold is greater than that of Europe under the same parallel: but the air is in general serene and salubrious, except where the rivers diffuse their damp exhalations. In the south, the heat is less violent and oppressive than in the corresponding portions of Africa. The soil is particularly adapted to the culture of hemp, flax, and tobacco: maize and other species of corn are raised with facility: the cotton plant also thrives in the province: rice is abundantly produced: indigo is cultivated with great success; and the sugar-canes luxuriantly grow on the banks of the Missisipi. In some parts of the country, mines of iron and lead are found: but they have not yet been wrought with very productive effect. Salt-pits are not uncommon; alum and sulphur are abundant; and coal is sometimes dug up, or rather vegetable matter in its progress to the formation of that useful substance. From a rocky hill near the Washita, hot springs issue, supposed to arise from the proximity of bitumen, aided by the effect of martial pyrites. Among the natural curiosities we may reckon the rafts upon the Red River: these are masses of drift-wood, brought down by every considerable swell, covering the stream for a great number of miles, and even supporting a vegetation of plants and trees. Near the source of the Washita, is an eminence called the crystal or shining mountain, from the multitude of hexagonal prisms of very transparent and colorless crystal, found on its surface.

Many savage tribes of different denominations are scattered over Louisiana. When it was first visited by Europeans, the Missouris were the most numerous horde in the long line of country watered by the river of that name; but their wars with other tribes, and the ravages of the small-pox, have greatly reduced their number. The Osages form one of the most distinguished communities in this part of America: their population, though declining, is about 4500. They claim a great extent of country; but, when they are not employed in hunting, they chiefly reside near the Three Forks of the Arkansa, and about eighty leagues up the

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Osage river, on the south side. The Sioux are the most fierce and warlike of all the barbarians of this territory. They are divided into the men of the woods, and of the meadows: the latter are represented as particularly tall, well-made, and agile. Few of their tribes are agricultural or stationary. The Panis are distributed into three branches, and inhabit the banks of the Red River and other fertile spots, where they raise more corn, gourds, beans, and tobacco, than their personal wants require, and are consequently induced to trade with the neighbouring tribes for skins, horses, and mules, and with the merchants of St. Louis for a variety of articles. The Hietans have no settled abodes, but wander in parties about the country, hunting buffaloes, and catching wild horses. One of their tents, which are made in the form of a cone, of skins neatly dressed, will accommodate ten or twelve persons; and a chief sometimes has one sufficiently capacious to hold forty or fifty of his relatives and friends. When they stop, their tents are so arranged as to form regular streets and squares; and, when they depart, they combine the most methodical order with the greatest celerity. While the half-naked Panis are inattentive to dress and to personal cleanliness, the Hietans are the *beaux* of the province, wearing leathern pantaloons and a hunting shirt or frock. With these the Utahs, who are great hunters, and possess large herds of horses, are occasionally at war. The Appaches, who are troublesome enemies to the Mexicans, also extend their inroads into this state. The Ricaras and Mundans dwell in fortified villages on the banks of the Missouri, and are cultivators of the land, as well as hunters. Their settlements would be more flourishing than they are, if they were not exposed to the attacks and depredations of the Sioux. In this survey, the Chawaneans ought not to be omitted, whose population is said to be superior to that of any other savage community in this part of the continent. Their principal branch, indeed, occupying the borders of the Lake Michigan, cannot be considered as belonging to Louisiana; but they have also various settlements near the Missisipi. They are active and industrious, brave and resolute. Having humbled the Osages and other adversaries in different wars, they are now feared and respected.

The first Europeans who encroached on the territories of these rude tribes by colonisation were the French. Louisiana, indeed, had been previously discovered by the Spaniards; but they did not form any settlements in that country. M. de la Salle, having sailed down the great river which bounds it on the eastward, in 1682, was so pleased with its appearance, that he recommended to the ministers of Louis XIV. the formation of such an establishment as might serve to employ enterprising adventurers, and promote the commercial interest of the mother-country. Returning from France with a small squadron, he was driven, by the violence of the wind, from the mouth of the river; and, landing to the westward, was either murdered by the savages, or fell a victim to the treachery of his own followers. Another attempt was made, under the conduct of Iberville, who with some difficulty formed a settlement, which, for a long course of years, did not prosper. The French at length ceded the province to Spain, when the family-compact had united the two courts in the most amicable confederacy; but it was subsequently restored to the French.

The capital is New-Orleans, so called in compliment to the regent duke, under whose administration it was erected in 1718. Almost the whole city was destroyed in 1788 by a sudden conflagration; and, in the town which rose upon its ruins, such havock was made in 1795 by another fire, that it was necessary to re-build a considerable part; a task

which was performed with neatness and despatch. Before it was transferred to the American government, it contained about 10,000 inhabitants; but an important augmentation of the number has since been effected by the eagerness of colonisation, for it now appears, that the amount is not less than 27,000; and the provincials, in the aggregate, are about 90,000.

The MISSISSIPPI state extends from north to south about 330 miles, and 140 from east to west, having that river for its western boundary, and the Tennessee to the north-east. The Pascagoula runs to the south through the province about 230 miles, and forms a wide bay in the gulf of Mexico. The soil is in many parts sandy, and fit only for hardy forest-trees: but, toward the north, it is adapted to corn, sweet potatoes, indigo, cotton, esculent vegetables, and fruit. As the country in general is low and watery, bilious complaints are prevalent, while the usual disorders of cold climates are rarely experienced in so warm a latitude. The number of mischievous animals, such as cougars, wolves, bears, and alligators, combined with other disadvantages, might be expected to deter adventurers from settling in this country: but the commercial prospects of the colony, and the exemption of all the navigable streams from toll, have attracted many emigrants. The scattered population probably amounts to 45,000: but in this calculation the descendants of the original natives are not included, who are said to amount to 20,000. They are chiefly Cherokees, Choctaws, and Chickasaws. They have made some progress in civilisation: many are farmers, and some inn-keepers: a considerable number can even read and write.

The towns in this state are scarcely worthy of the name. Even Washington, which is the seat of government, is a very small town. Natchez is chiefly occupied by cotton-planters and slaves; and, from this place, the chief trade of the colony is carried on.

The state of ALABAMA, to the west of Georgia, is supposed to comprehend 33,000 square miles, with rather more than one inhabitant to each. In the low southern parts the heat is intense, while the climate, in the rest of this country, resembles that of Georgia. The principal river is the Mobile, of which the Alabama is one great branch, and the Tombigbee another. Between those branches, the best soil for agriculture is found; and, in other parts, almost all the varieties of trees luxuriantly grow. The largest town is that of Mobile, occupied by about 1500 persons, who trade with the merchants of Boston, New-York, and New-Orleans, chiefly exporting cotton. St. Stephen's, eighty miles above Mobile, is the seat of government. The Creeks have a number of villages near the Alabama and Chatahouche, where many of their tribes act both as cultivators and manufacturers.

The ILLINOIS state is traversed by a river of that name, which affords for large boats an uninterrupted navigation of 230 miles. The lands between that stream and the Mississippi are very rich; and, indeed, the soil in general is fertile, and the climate agreeable. As the country has not been fully explored, few minerals have been discovered; but future search may disclose many. The forest-trees are very numerous: and the living tenants of the woods are equally abundant, the species being nearly the same as in Indiana. Ancient fortifications and *tumuli* are seen in many parts; and the latter are considered by all the savages as places of sepulture. The chief tribes that yet remain are the Saukis, Piankashaws, and Mascontins: the Kaskaskias were formerly distin-

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guished, but they are now reduced to a state of insignificance. It was from their ancestors that a party of French emigrants from Canada, above a century ago, purchased or procured that district on which they erected the town of Kaskaskin, now the seat of government. The population of this territory, in 1810, was only about 12,000; but, at present, it amounts to 20,000.

The MISSOURI state extends from the Missisipi to the Rocky Mountains, and from the Elk River to Louisiana and the Mexican territories. It is, for the most part, a level country. The most fertile portion is that which stretches above the Osage, on each side of the Missouri, over an area of 30,000 square miles,—three-fifths consisting of undulating meadow-ground, the rest of wood-land watered by various streams, and the whole surface susceptible of cultivation. The climate is subject to violent transitions from heat to cold; but the general temperature is mild and agreeable. Beside the great rivers which we have mentioned, the chief stream is the Arkansa, which flows into the Missisipi after a winding course of 1500 miles. The White River is also a fine stream, navigable through a space of 750 miles. St. Peter's river, in the northern part of this state, has a course of about 500 miles; but it is not altogether convenient for navigation. Lead, iron, copper, zinc, pyrites, marble, gypsum, alum, nitre, coal, salt, and other mineral substances, abound in this extensive tract. Among the wild animals are bears, wolves, lynxes, foxes, buffaloes, elks, antelopes, porcupines, and beavers, and the feathered tribes are numerous and varied.

There are not many towns in this wide expanse of country. The chief town is that of St. Louis, below the mouth of the Missouri. Most of the houses are built of lime-stone, and have gardens or paddocks. The next towns, in point of consequence, are St. Charles and New-Madrid; the trade of the latter is rapidly increasing.

The population of this state does not yet, we believe, amount to 30,000. The majority of the people in the interior appear to be hunters, divided by their complexions into the red and the white. The Osages, who are not confined to Louisiana, are fierce warriors and bold hunters, and, while they molest the white Missourians in one way, rival them in the other pursuit. In their excursions they form remarkable camps, which they arrange in the neatest order.—“The form of each of their tents” (says Mr. Schoolcraft) “may be compared to an inverted bird's nest, or hemisphere, with a small aperture left in the top for the escape of the smoke, and a similar but larger one at one side for passing in and out. It is formed by cutting a number of slender flexible green poles of equal length, sharpening them at each end, and sticking them in the ground like a bow, so that they cross at right angles at the top, while the points of entrance into the ground form a circle. Small twigs are then woven in, mixed with the leaves of cane, moss, and grass, until the structure is perfectly tight and warm. These tents are arranged in large circles, one within another, according to the number of persons intended to be accommodated. In the centre is a scaffolding for meat, from which all are supplied every morning, under the inspection of a chief, whose tent is conspicuously situated at the head of the encampment, and differs from all the rest, resembling a half-cylinder inverted. Their women and children generally accompany them on these excursions, which often occupy three months.”—The white hunters, we may observe, are not so addicted to rambling, and generally erect substantial log-houses; and they, at the same time, keep some acres in a state of cultivation.

The MICHIGAN territory, situated to the east of the lake of that name, is not yet so populous as to be thought worthy of admission to the dignity of a federal state. It is so imperfectly settled, that it contains only 13,000 colonists upon an area of 32,000 square miles: yet it is a convenient spot for the northern and western trade; the soil is far from being unproductive; and the climate is in general salubrious. Some of the hills near the lake are crowned with a stunted growth of white pine, while others are bare. The beach is covered, in many parts, with fragments of rocks, evidently primitive, and probably derived from the decomposition of the same masses, which by their destruction have given rise to the immense deposit of sand and pebbles, forming the bottom of the lake; and the hills seem to have been produced by the progressive accumulation of sand blown from the beach by the strong north-westerly winds of the winter. The agricultural and mercantile establishments are chiefly near Detroit, on the Miami and Raisin, and the lakes of Huron and St. Clair. Detroit is a small town, defended by a fort, honored by a college, and distinguished by commercial privileges. Almost one half of its population may be traced from Canada, or from France. About 3000 savages still inhabit various parts of this territory; and many of them are agriculturists, graziers, and manufacturers. The chief exports are corn, pulse, fruit, and fish: the imports consist of various provisions; and, though the colonists make great quantities of whisky, they procure from the Ohio state an additional stock of their favorite beverage.

That extensive tract which is called the NORTH-WEST territory (to the west of Lake Michigan), abounds with lakes and rivers, mineral treasures, and the varied produce of the forest; but its soil is not distinguished by fertility. Its elevation and northerly position would seem to indicate a great degree of cold, which, however, is so far modified by the aquatic masses of the lakes Superior and Michigan, that it is not so severe as might be expected. Few countries are better supplied with fish and game than this territory: valuable furs are afforded by the beavers, otters, and sables; and, with proper care and attention, all sorts of cattle would thrive on its fields and meadows. The water-fowl contend with the savages for the wild oats that abundantly grow on the humid expanse; and both parties manifest some degree of skill in the contest. So thinly peopled is the country, that only a few villages are scattered over 130,000 square miles. The largest settlement is one which consists of about sixty houses, inhabited by 400 persons, who are chiefly of French origin, with a mixture of barbarian blood. The people are courteous in their manners, and apparently well-disposed.

From the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean, the country has been repeatedly traversed by American adventurers. The captains Lewis and Clarke were sent by the government to survey it; and, after a very fatiguing and hazardous journey, they found themselves on the shore of the Pacific Ocean, in the 46th degree of northern latitude. They did not accurately examine the height of the mountains; but it is supposed that the most elevated ridge, being perpetually covered with snow, is not less than 8500 feet above the level of the sea. Another great chain, nearly parallel to the former, extends across the country near the coast. Between these chains, a spacious plain expands itself, being in some parts 350 miles wide. This tract is crossed by the Columbia, the banks of which are inhabited by savage tribes, who chiefly subsist upon the fine and nutritive salmon afforded by the river. A valley, situated between the

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hills near the coast and some distant heights, excited the particular attention of the two officers. It abounds with wood, of which the greater part of the country is destitute; the soil is apparently fertile in a high degree; and the climate is milder than that of the states near the Atlantic in the same parallel. They passed the winter on the coast; and the season was tempestuous and rainy, without the severity of cold. Near the mouth of the river to the north, is Cape Disappointment; and Clarke's Point, to the southward, rises almost 1000 feet above the sea; but the shore is in general low and flat. At Astoria, fourteen miles from the former cape, a settlement was formed, and a fur company established; and other parts of the coast have since been colonised.

To this survey of the United States, we may now add a description of Florida, which was ceded to the Americans in 1819, in consideration of the payment of five millions of dollars, by the congress, to those subjects of the republic who had claims upon the Spanish government. It extends 450 miles from east to west, and 270 from north to south, containing about 50,000 square miles. The climate is very warm, and the winter so mild, that even the orange and banana tree rarely receive any injury from the temperature of that season. Iron ore, copper, quicksilver, and pit-coal, are produced in considerable quantities. 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 in a year; and the garden vegetables are in great perfection. The inland country, toward the hills, is very rich and fertile, yielding spontaneously the products which are common to Georgia and the Carolinas; and it is likewise favorable to the rearing of European productions.

Horses, cattle, sheep, and hogs, are numerous, especially in West-Florida. 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 abundance; and the rivers swarm with fish, but are, at the same time, infested with voracious alligators.

The chief town in West Florida is Pensacola, 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 nearly surrounded by land.

St. Augustine, the capital of East-Florida, stands on the neck of a peninsula, 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, called Fort St. John.

This country was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1497. The French first formed a small establishment in it, but were driven from it by the Spaniards, who then began to form settlements themselves. At the peace of 1763 it was ceded to the English, in exchange for the Havannah, which had been taken from the Spaniards. While it was in our possession, the state of the country was considerably improved. During the American revolutionary war, it was reduced by the Spaniards, to whom it was confirmed by the treaty of the year 1783. It did not flourish under their injudicious and negligent government, which did not even protect the colonists against the hostilities of the savages. Considering it as a

derelict country, the Americans invaded it under general Jackson, in 1818, and took possession of Pensacola; of which, however, the congress ordered the restitution. The subsequent cession, by the king of Spain, of a territory which he found unprofitable in his hands, visibly tended to give compactness to the dominions of the American republic, and to meliorate the condition and circumstances of the provincials.

THE NORTH-WEST COAST OF AMERICA.

OF the first discovery which any European made on the north-west coast of America, the credit is due to Sir Francis Drake. He returned in 1580 from his celebrated voyage round the world, in the course of which he had landed and taken possession of New-Albion. He did not colonise it, but left it to future occupancy. The Spaniards subsequently surveyed various parts of that coast, but did not form settlements in New-California, to the south of New-Albion, before the year 1763. They claimed the whole extent of these maritime provinces, until the remonstrances of other powers constrained them to content themselves with the country situated to the south of Cape Mendocino, in the northern latitude of 40 degrees. Captain Cook, in 1778, explored these parts with an accurate eye, and in his progress reached Nootka Sound, beyond the 49th degree. He immediately commenced a brisk traffic with the inhabitants, who produced a great variety of skins, for which they gladly received in exchange looking-glasses, buttons, knives, chisels, and nails, though it appeared that they were already in possession of iron. They were an ugly and dirty race, with dull inanimate countenances: but their dress was convenient, and, if it had been clean, might even have been thought not inelegant. It was a flaxen mantle, passing under the left arm, and tied over the right shoulder, ornamented with fur on the upper edge, and fringes at the lower edge, and sometimes fastened by a girdle; and a small fringed eloke was worn over it. Many wore a cap like a truncated cone, made of very fine matting, adorned with a round knob, or a bunch of leathern tassels. They had some skill in the imitative arts, as their huts abounded with sculptural and pictorial representations of various kinds. Their implements for fishing and hunting were ingeniously contrived and dexterously manufactured; and, indeed, almost every thing proved that they had better tools than the islanders of the Pacific ocean.

About the 60th degree of latitude, a sound was discovered to which the name of prince William was given, and an inlet was observed near that part of the coast, which flattered the captain with the hope of finding a passage to the Atlantic. He found various branches; but the main channel continued in a northern direction between chains of mountains. He traced it above 180 miles from its mouth, and saw no appearance of its source. The earl of Sandwich gave to this stream the name of Cook's River. Proceeding to the isle of Oomalaska, the indefatigable commander found symptoms of Russian influence in those remote parts. Captain Behring, soon after the death of Peter the Great, from whom he had received instructions for that purpose, had sailed to the northward, until he approached the strait which divides Asia from America. Some

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have doubted whether he actually saw the west of the latter country: but, though he did not accurately examine it, he appears to have made the desired discovery, and the strait is therefore called by his name. When Cook had penetrated to the Arctic circle, and found that only the narrow space of 39 miles divided Asia from America, he examined both coasts as far as the weather would allow, and reached an American promontory beyond the 70th degree of latitude, which, for an obvious reason, he denominated the Icy Cape. His progress being stopped by frozen accumulations, he returned to the southward, and lost his life in the manner which we have already stated.

From his observations on the people of Prince William's Sound, and also on those of Norton Sound, 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 maritime communication 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 former had related that, between 47 and 48 degrees of northern latitude, he had entered into a broad inlet which led him into a far broader sea, wherein he sailed above twenty days; and de Fonte pretended to have 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 northern latitude, and communicated, by other lakes and rivers, with a passage in which a ship had arrived from Boston. For the ascertainment of this point, and also for the final adjustment of a dispute respecting Nootka, captain Vancouver was sent out in 1790. He procured the restitution of the captured settlement, and restrained the Spanish claims within moderate limits. He accurately surveyed the western coast, from lat. 30 to 60; but he did not find any considerable inlet which penetrated far into the country, and therefore concluded that the desired passage could only be found by sea.

This coast, to a very great extent, 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 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 punctuation, one from each corner of the mouth, and one in the middle, occupying three-fifths of the lips 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; and the orifice is by degrees sufficiently stretched to admit an 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 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 in navigating this coast, hitherto, has been to traffic with the natives for

furs, which are carried to China, and disposed of at a great profit. The skins which are usually obtained, are those of the sea-otter, seal, racoon, land-beaver, and earless marmot.

This part of the American coast was also examined by M. de la Pérouse, whom Louis XVI. employed in geographical and maritime discoveries. He sailed as far as the vicinity of Mount St. Elias, the most remarkable of all the elevations between California and the Icy Cape. This mountain, by nautic exaggeration, is said to be visible at sea at the distance of 180 miles: its height above the sea is estimated at 14,500 feet. Finding a bay in the 59th degree, the French commander conceived the hope of passing by that channel into the inland parts of the country: but an experimental voyage up the bay convinced him of its speedy termination. He purchased a whole island from the savages, by the offer of some red cloth and pieces of iron. He found the climate considerably milder than that of Hudson's-bay; the soil appeared to be adapted to ordinary produce, and trees of a fine growth were abundantly diffused: but the manners of the people did not please him so much as the face of the country. They seemed to him to be irritable and revengeful: they lived in a frequent, if not a continual, state of discord and animosity; and there was not that regularity of government which could check the effervescence of their passions. From the very slight construction of their huts, the substance and contents of which could easily be carried away in a canoe, it appeared that they were not fixed to particular spots, but led a wandering life. Both sexes slept, with promiscuous indecency, upon skins spread over the earth, or the floor of a hut. Skins likewise composed their dress; but they were merely thrown over their shoulders, so as to leave a great part of the body in a state of nudity. A straw hat, skillfully plaited, adorned the heads of many; and some of the principal members of the community had a sort of shirt, formed of the tanned skin of an elk or a sea-otter, fringed with the hoofs of deer and beaks of birds, which, when they danced, made discordant sounds. Ornaments annexed to the nose, mouth, and ears, were not uncommon; and, in strewing the down of sea-birds over their hair, these barbarians merely evinced a refinement of taste equal to that of the Europeans, who cover their heads with white dust.

Captain von Kotzebue, in 1816, penetrated to Behring's Strait, and, having descried beyond it the entrance of a wide inlet, pushed forward in the hope of making some important discovery. He landed, and joined a party of the natives, an ugly and squalid tribe, but strong and apparently healthy. They viewed him with eyes of suspicion; but he soon put them in good-humor by presents of knives and scissors, and also of tobacco, of which they were remarkably fond, being in the habit of procuring it, with other articles of traffic, from the Tchutski, on the opposite coast of Asia. When he had passed a little way up the inlet, he found that it soon terminated, and by another apparent inlet he was equally disappointed. To a sound which he discovered, in the latitude of 67 degrees, he gave his own name, and assured future navigators that they might find a tolerable harbour within it, and that the neighbouring country would afford abundance of furs.

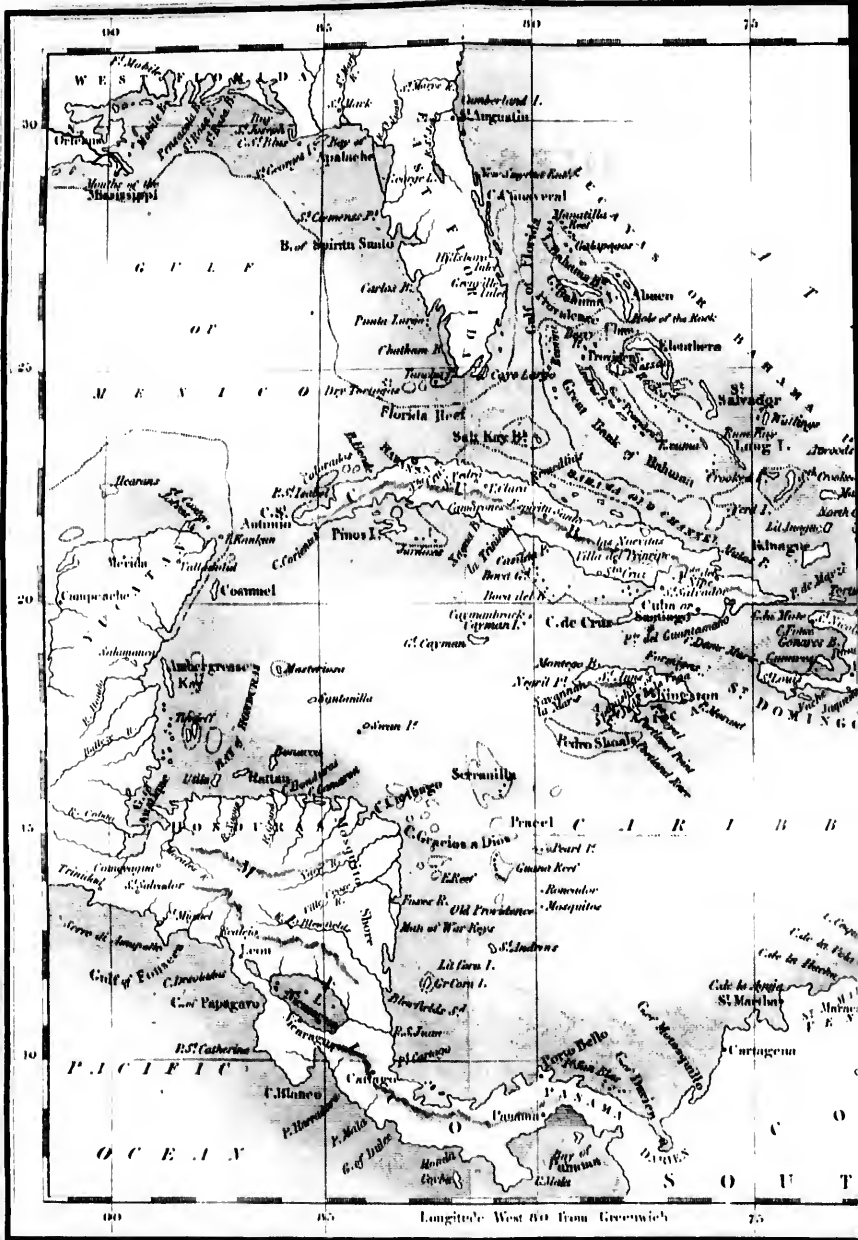
Before this voyage, the Russians had taken possession of various parts of the American coast, and had formed several settlements in a high northern latitude, to which additions have since been made. Intent on territorial aggrandisement, they wished to claim an immense line of coast; but, by endeavouring to debar other nations from a free trade in the

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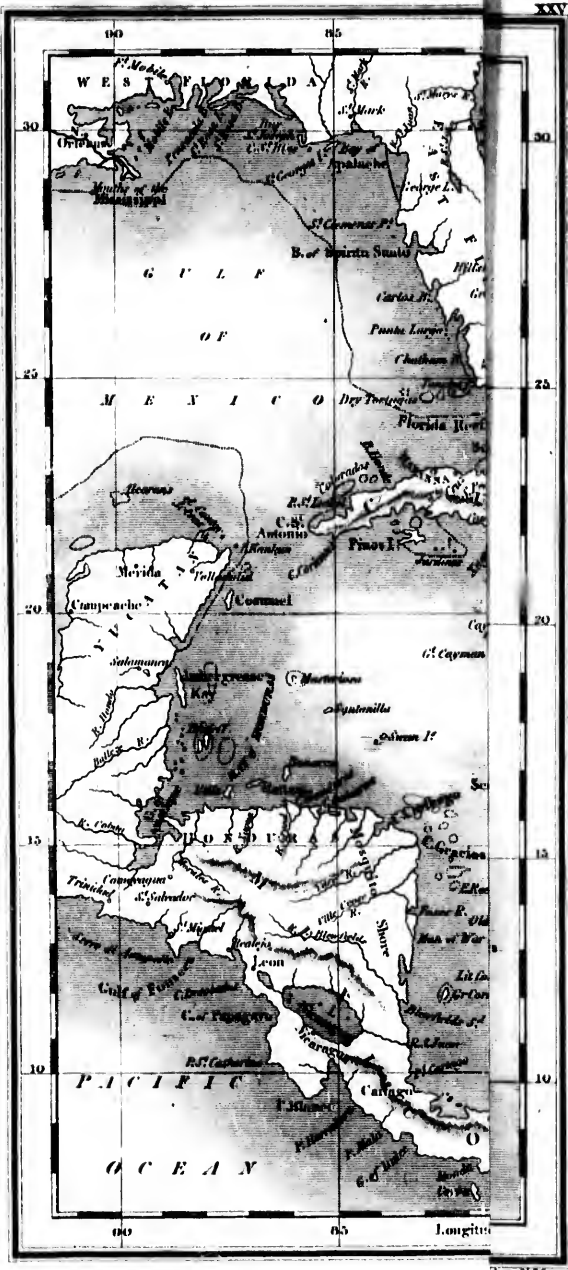
WEST INDIES.

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The 1852 Stream.

North-Pacific, they so far excited the disgust of the British court, that strong remonstrances were made against such unwarrantable pretensions. The emperor Alexander at length condescended to lower his tone; and a convention was adjusted, in February 1825, allowing the Prince of Wales' island to belong wholly to the Russians, and fixing the southernmost point of that island, in the latitude of 54 degrees north, as a spot from which a line should commence, and proceed through the 141st degree of western longitude to the Frozen Ocean, dividing the British and Russian possessions on the continent of America to the north-west. On the west of this line the Russians, and on the east the subjects of Great-Britain, were to remain unmolested, and colonise as they might think proper: the latter were to enjoy the right of navigating freely all the rivers and streams which, in their course toward the Pacific, might cross the stipulated line of demarcation; and, for a period of ten years, the vessels of the two powers were to have the mutual liberty of frequenting not only the ocean, but all the inland seas, gulfs, havens, and creeks, in those distant parts, for the purposes of fishing and trading with the natives.

THE WEST INDIES.

BETWEEN the northern and southern divisions of America a multitude of islands, called the West-Indies, are situated. In all these islands the climate is nearly the same, if we make an allowance for those accidental differences which the situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the sun goes directly over them, 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 toward the sea, to all points of the compass at once. In the same manner, when the sun advances toward the tropic of Cancer, and becomes vertical, he draws after him a vast body of clouds, which 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 prevails from the beginning of January to the end of May.

The rains in the West-Indies are by no means so moderate as with us; for our heaviest rains are comparatively dews. They are rather impetuous floods; 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 the rivers which originate within the tropics swell and overflow their banks at a certain season. The ancients erroneously imagined that the torrid zone was dried and scorched up with a continued and fervent heat, and that it was consequently uninhabitable; but, in reality, some of the largest rivers have their course within its limits, and, in many parts, the moisture is one of the greatest inconveniences of the climate.

The rains make the only distinction of seasons in the West-Indies; the trees are green during the whole year: they have no cold, no frost or snow, and rarely any hail; the storms of hail are, however, very violent



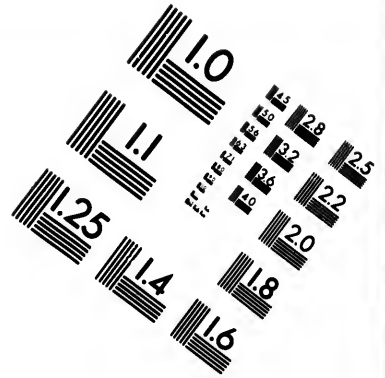
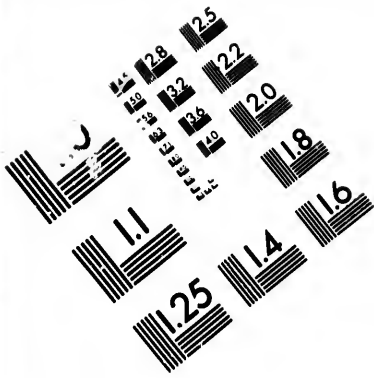
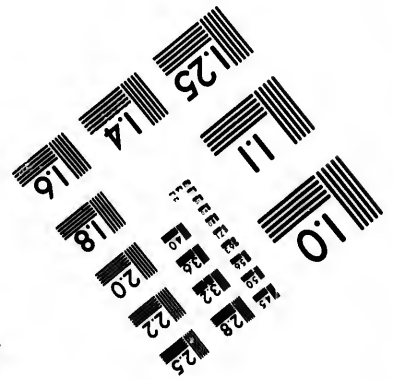
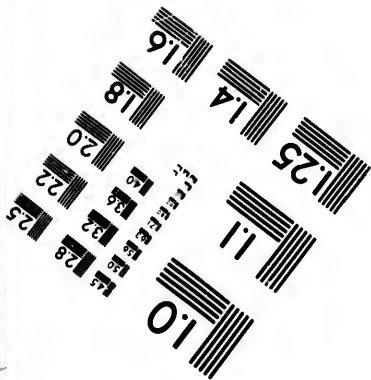
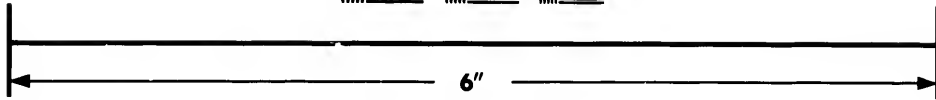
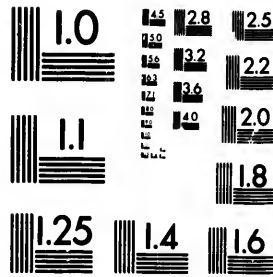


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when they happen, and the hailstones very large and heavy. It is in the rainy season (principally in August) that they are assaulted by hurricanes, the most terrible calamity to which they are subject from the climate; these destroy, at a stroke, the labors of many years, and prostrate the hopes of the planter, often at the moment when he thinks himself beyond 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 sea, and sometimes with an earthquake; in short, with every circumstance which the elements can assemble, that is terrible and destructive. The inhabitants first see, as the prelude to the ensuing havock, whole fields of sugar-canes whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country; the strongest trees of the forest are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble; their windmills are swept away in a moment; their utensils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers and stills, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houses are no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blast, while the rain, which in an hour rises five feet, rushes in upon them with irresistible violence.

The staple West-Indian commodity is sugar: it was not known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in very early times by the Chinese, from whom 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 general luxury in Europe. The juice within the sugar-cane is the most lively and least cloying sweet in nature, and, sucked raw, is very nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses, rum is distilled, and from the scum 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 to the fishery of Newfoundland, and other parts, beside what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. 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 fuel; so that no part of this excellent plant is destitute of utility.

The present state of the population in the British West-Indies appears to be about 65,000 whites, and 455,000 blacks. There are likewise in each of the islands many persons 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 body of 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 semi-circle, stretching almost from the coast of Florida in the north, to the river Orinoco, on the continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the original inhabitants, though this is a term which most geographers confine to the Leeward Islands. Sailors distinguish them into the Windward and Leeward Islands, with regard to the usual courses of ships from Old Spain or the Canaries to Carthage, or New Spain and Porto-Bello. They are sometimes denominated the great and little Antilles.

Proceeding to a description of the British islands in the West-Indies, we observe, that JAMAICA is situated between the 76th and 79th degrees of west longitude from London, and between 17 and 19 north latitude. From the east to west it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 55 in breadth. It is intersected by a ridge of steep rocks, heaped,

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one upon another, by the frequent earthquakes. These rocks, though they have 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 their own support. From the rocks issue many small rivers of pure wholesome water, which fall in cataracts, and, with the stupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees, through which they flow, form a 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 intermediate valleys or plains are level beyond what is ordinary in most other countries, and the soil is remarkably fertile.

The air of this island is, in most places, excessively hot, and unfavorable to European constitutions; but the cool sea-breezes, which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable; and, upon the high grounds, the air 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, in these violent storms, the lightning frequently does great damage. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight. In the plains are found several salt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spanish-Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtue. It gives relief in the dry colic; but it is now rarely used in this instance, because that which, except the bilious and yellow fever, was one of the most terrible endemial distempers of Jamaica, is now, happily, little known in the island.

Sugar is the principal and most valuable production of Jamaica. Cocoa was formerly cultivated on this spot to a great extent. The island also produces ginger and pimento; 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; excellent cedar, of a large size, and durable; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardness of its wood, which, when dry, is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palm, affording oil, much esteemed by the natives, both in food and medicine; the sope-tree, whose berries answer the purpose of washing; the mangrove and olive-bark, useful to the tanners; the fustic and log-wood, to the dyers. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton-tree is still so; but the latter, though it bears a fine down in pods, useful for stuffing beds, is not the tree that affords the genuine cotton. The bamboo, though not applicable to such numerous uses as its Chinese name-sake, is calculated to supply many essential wants. No sort of European grain grows here; but the inhabitants cultivate, with great success, maize or Indian corn, Guinea corn, and peas of various kinds. The bread-fruit tree does not thrive so well as the plantain. The best kinds of fruit are abundant; namely, citrons, oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, sour-sops, pine-apples, melons, pompions, and guavas. Jamaica likewise supplies the apothecary with gunicum, sarsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds. The cattle bred on this island are few; the beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable. Many plantations have hundreds of hogs, and their flesh is exceedingly sweet and delicate. The horses are small, spirited, and hardy. Here are all sorts of fowl, wild and tame, and, in particular, more parrots than in any of the other islands; beside pelicans,

snipes, teal, Guinea-hens, geese, ducks, and turkeys; the humming-bird, the smallest of all the feathered tribes, the mock-bird, which imitates the notes of four of our songsters, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fish, and in the former are many alligators, who are not, however, daringly mischievous. The mountains breed numerous adders, and other noxious animals. Among the insects are the scorpion, the mosquito, and the chego. The last eats into the nervous or membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and sometimes of the white people. It enters the legs and feet, where the intruders quickly multiply, 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, he picks them out with a needle, or point of a pen-knife, 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 formerly a part of the Spanish empire; but, in 1656, it was reduced under our dominion. Cromwell had fitted out a squadron, under Penn and Venables, to reduce Hispaniola; but there this squadron was unsuccessful. The commanders, to atone for this misfortune, made a descent on Jamaica, and, having taken the capital, St. Jago, soon compelled the whole island to surrender. It is divided into three counties, Middlesex, Surry, and Cornwall, which contain, in the whole, twenty-one parishes. The town of Port-Royal stands on the point of a narrow neck of land, which, toward the sea, forms part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The convenience of this port, which is capable of containing a thousand large ships, and so deep as to allow them to load and unload with the greatest ease, induced the inhabitants to build their capital on this spot, though it was a hot dry sand, producing none of the necessaries of life. 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 fortunes in this capital with a dissipation equally inconsiderate. At the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its size, could be compared with this town for trade, wealth, and corruption of manners. In the month of June, in that year, an earthquake, which shook the whole island to the foundations, overwhelmed this city. In two minutes, the earth opened and swallowed up nine-tenths of the houses, and two thousand persons. The water gushed out from the openings of the earth, and forced the people on heaps; but some of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houses, and were saved by boats. Several ships were wrecked in the harbour; and the Swan frigate was carried over the tops of sinking houses, and was 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 that the earth opened and shut very quickly in some places, and he saw several of the unfortunate inhabitants sink down to the middle, while others appeared with their heads just above the 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. The city was rebuilt; but, ten years after, it was nearly destroyed by a great fire. It rose from its ashes; but, in 1722, it was almost totally ruined 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, and to remove to the opposite

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side of the bay, where they built Kingston. This city has a population of 30,000, and many of its houses are handsomely built, and, in the taste of these islands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one story high, with porticoes, and every convenience for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingston stands St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish-Town, which is a small place, but is the handsomest town in the island, and the seat of government.

On the 3d of October, 1780, a dreadful hurricane arose, which almost overwhelmed the town of Savannah-la-Mar, and ravaged 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. These misfortunes arose from accident; but great mischief was sustained at various times from the effects of human passions. The Maroons, or fugitive slaves, sometimes took up arms against the planters, and could not be subdued without extreme difficulty. It was thought necessary by the savage rulers of the island, that these unfortunate beings should be hunted down with blood-hounds: many were thus torn to pieces, and others were capitally punished for the devastations and outrages which they had been induced by discontent and resentment to commit.

In a survey of Jamaica, the curious reader may expect some remarks on the culture of that plant which has enriched so many of the inhabitants by its produce. The sugar-cane is a jointed reed, terminating in leaves or blades, whose edges are serrated. The body of the cane is apparently strong, but brittle, and, when ripe, of a fine yellow, containing a soft pithy substance, which affords a copious supply of sweet juice. In strong lands, and those which have been richly manured, some canes measure eleven or twelve feet; but the general height is from four to seven feet. Sometimes the root will put forth a hundred suckers or shoots. There is a succession of canes; those of the first growth are called plant-canes, and require about fifteen months to bring them to maturity: the sprouts from the roots of those canes which have been cut for sugar, form a second series, and are usually ripe in twelve months; and a second year's growth regularly follows. The best season for planting is between August and November, as the canes will then have the advantage of the autumnal rains, which will sufficiently promote their growth before the dry weather prevails.

BARBADOES is 21 miles in length, and in breadth 14. It contains 100,470 acres of land, the greatest part of which is under cultivation; and is divided into five districts and eleven parishes. When the English, about the year 1625, first landed here, they found it a most savage and destitute place. It had not the least appearance of ever having been peopled even by savages. No beasts of pasture or of prey appeared; no fruit, herb, or root, fit for supporting the life of man. Yet, as the climate was promising, and the soil seemed to be fertile, some gentlemen of small fortune 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 rendered the land productive: they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the soil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, answered tolerably. These prospects, 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 so great was the increase of people in Barbadoes, twenty-five years after its first settlement, that

in 1650 it contained above 45,000 whites, and a much greater number of negroes and Caribbean slaves: the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honor; for they seized those unhappy men, without any pretence, in some of the neighbouring islands, and carried them into slavery. In 1676, it was supposed that the number of slaves amounted to 80,000, which, with 45,000, made 125,000 on this small spot, — a striking proof of the progress of cultivation and trade. At that time Barbadoes employed 400 sail of ships (one with another, of 150 tons) in commerce. Its annual exports, in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were above 350,000*l.* and the circulating cash at home was 200,000*l.* But the island subsequently became less flourishing, partly from the growth of the French sugar colonies, and partly from our establishments in the neighbouring isles. In 1786 the numbers were, 16,167 whites, 838 free people of color, and 62,115 negroes; and the present amount is scarcely more considerable. The capital of the island is Bridge-town, near the spacious bay of Carlisle. The streets are wide, and the buildings handsome. Here is a college, founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this island.

Barbadoes has suffered much by tempests, fires, and the plague. In 1780, a hurricane occasioned great devastation in the island; above 4000 of the inhabitants lost their lives; and the damage done to the property was computed at 1,320,000*l.*

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S (commonly called by the sailors St. Kitt's) is twenty miles long and seven broad. It has its name from the famous Christopher Columbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of attention; and in 1627 it was settled by the French and English conjointly, but entirely ceded to the latter by the peace of Utrecht. It is supposed to contain above 35,000 persons, of whom about 4500 are whites, or creoles. In the year 1782 it was taken by the French, but was restored to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783. Basseterre, the chief town, is unprovided with a harbour; and there are few places where landing, from the violence of the surf, is sufficiently secure. The interior parts of the country exhibit rugged precipices and barren mountains: of these, the most elevated is Mount Misery, evidently a decayed volcano, which rises 3700 feet above the sea: but, in the level parts, the soil is fertile.

ANTIGUA, though a part of the coast is very rocky, has some good harbours. It is about 21 miles long, and its breadth is nearly the same. This spot, which was formerly thought useless, is now preferred to the other islands in one respect, 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 the ordinary seat of the governor of the Leeward Islands. There are two kinds of soil on this spot; one sort is rich and productive, when not checked by those droughts to which Antigua is subject: the other is a stiff unyielding clay. The produce has declined in late years; but the population has increased even since the abolition of the slave trade. In 1817, it amounted to 2102 whites (exclusive of the troops), and 33,637 negroes and people of color.

The island of **NEVIS** is merely a single mountain, rising like a cone in an easy ascent from the sea, the circumference of its base not exceeding 21 miles. **MONTSERRAT**, as the name implies, is also a

mountainous inhabitants. Both were pacification.

BARBADOES inhabitants, who are industrious and hardy, and are natives of the isles.

ANGUILLA perfectly level. The inhabitants are small herds of cattle.

DOMINICA its name from the name of this island. The soil is fertile; but the climate is hot and the island is not so populous as the other islands. The inhabitants are of various colors. How

ST. LUCIA dedicated to the Virgin Mary. Its breadth is about 10 miles. It was agreed to be a French colony. The French produce excellent sugar, rum, and other articles. The population is about 23,000.

ST. VINCENT The soil is fertile. The culture is the same as in the other islands; but this article is not so good as in the other islands. The population is about 23,000.

By the means of the customs of the island, as they formerly were, it is not altogether impeded with impatience, and a very impure morality.

GRENADE almost the same as the other islands. It is proved that

mountainous spot. In each of these islands, there are about 10,500 inhabitants. Their principal exports are derived from the sugar-cane. Both were taken by the French in 1782, but restored at the ensuing pacification.

BARBUDA is 20 miles in length and 12 in breadth. Its inhabitants, who are about 1500 in number, are chiefly employed in husbandry, and in raising fresh provisions for the use of the neighbouring isles.

ANGUILLA is about 30 miles long and 9 broad. This island is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants raise very good tobacco, maize, and sugar, and feed large herds of cattle.

DOMINICA is 27 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 of sugar; but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West Indies, and the island is well supplied with fresh water. The French strenuously opposed our settling here, because they thought it might cut off their communication, in time of war, between Martinique and Guadeloupe. However, by the peace of 1763, it was ceded to the English.

ST. LUCIA was so called, because it was discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr of that name. Its length is 23 miles, and its breadth 12. After it had been partially colonised by the English, it was agreed between them and the French, that it should be deemed neutral. France obtained it by the peace of 1763. The soil is rich; it produces excellent timber; and the coast offers the advantage of good harbours. The island now belongs to Great-Britain. Its population is about 23,000.

ST. VINCENT is about 17 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. The soil is chiefly a black mould upon a strong loam, the most proper for the culture of the sugar-cane. Indigo thrives here remarkably well; but this article is less cultivated than formerly in the West Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribs, and many are fugitives from Barbadoes and the other islands. The Caribs were treated with such severity, after this island came under the power of the English, to whom it was ceded by the peace of 1763, that their efforts greatly contributed toward enabling the French to gain possession of it again in 1779; but it was restored to Great-Britain by the treaty of 1783.

By the miserable remnant of Caribs in this island, some of the old customs of those barbarian tribes are retained. They are not, indeed, as they formerly were, canibals; but they are still a ferocious race, not altogether so incapable of civilisation, as averse to it. They bear with impatience the restraints of law and subordination, and have a very imperfect sense of religion, though they have some ideas of morality.

GRENADA is about 80 miles to the south-west of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of New Andalusia, on the Spanish Main. It is 25 miles in length, and 13 in breadth. Experience has proved that the soil is very 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. This island has frequently changed its masters; but it is now a British dependency.

TOBAGO is situated to the south-east of Grenada, and is 32 miles in length and 9 in breadth. It has many bays or creeks, two of which afford very convenient harbours; and its vicinity to the continent renders it less subject to hurricanes than the other Caribbee islands are. Scarborough, the chief town, is on the southern side, and is defended by a fortress. The soil is well watered and usefully productive. The island was long considered as neutral; but it became a British possession in 1763; and, after being occasionally under the power of France, it is again subject to our sovereign.

TRINIDAD lies between Tobago and the Spanish Main, from which it is separated by the strait of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 50 broad; and is unhealthy but fruitful, producing cotton, sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and Indian corn. It was taken by sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676; captured from the Spaniards in 1797, and ceded to England by the treaty of Amiens.

In this island is a remarkable production of nature, being a bituminous lake, or rather plain, called Tar-Lake, about three miles in circuit. The substance which is here found, has the consistence and aspect of pit-coal; it breaks into glossy fragments of a cellular appearance: a gentle heat renders it ductile, and, mixed with grease or common pitch, it is used for smearing the bottoms of ships. In many parts of the woods, it is found in a liquid state. The adjacent country has, in various respects, strong volcanic symptoms.

THE VIRGIN ISLANDS lie to the east of Porto-Rico. The Spaniards gave them their name in honor of the 11,000 virgins of the legend. They belong principally to the English and the Danes, though the Spaniards claim some small ones. Tortola, the principal of those which belong to the English, is about 18 miles long and seven broad; it produces excellent cotton, sugar, and rum. The isles of St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Croix, which are a part of this groupe, belong to the Danes. The first has a sandy soil, and is ill supplied with water; but it has a good harbour.

THE BAHAMA ISLANDS extend along the coast of Florida to the vicinity of Cuba. They were not known to the English before the year 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, he 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 plant 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, who for a long time infested the American navigation. This obliged the go-

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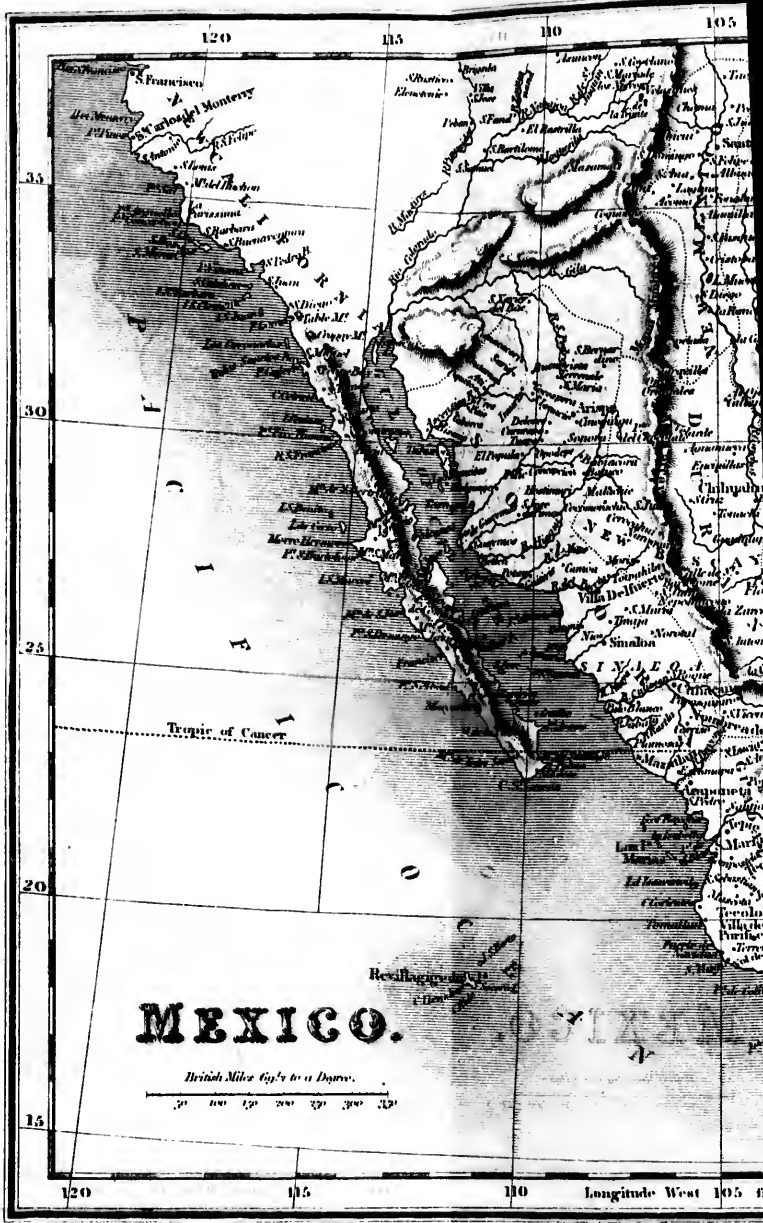
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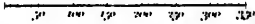
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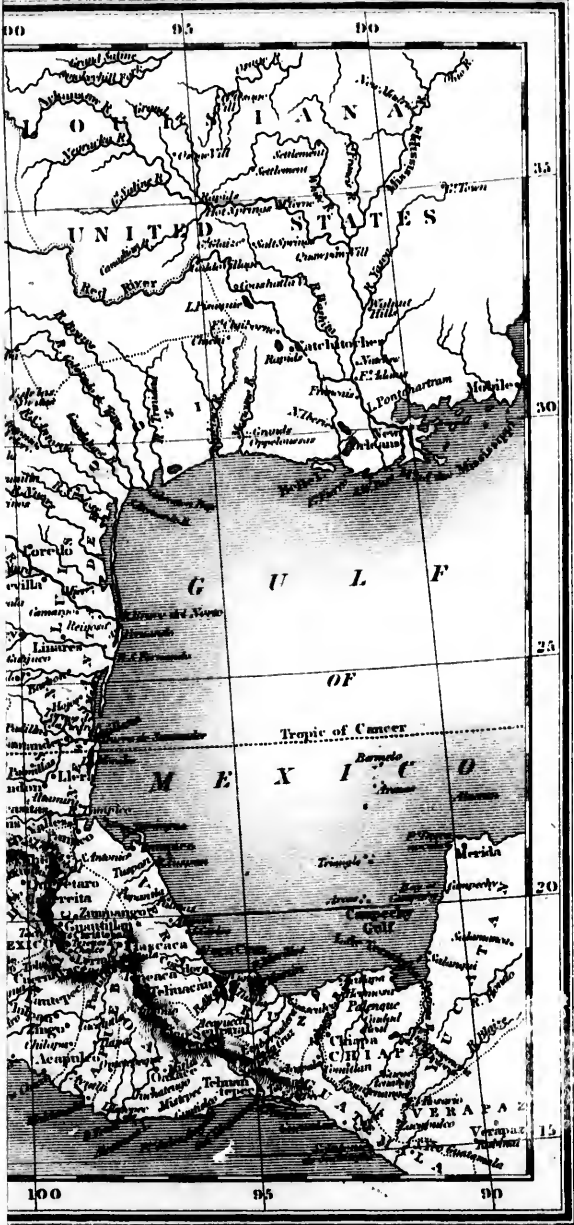
MEXICO.

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vernment, in 1718, to send out captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet for the dislodgement of the pirates, and for making a settlement. This he accomplished, and a fort was erected. The Spaniards capture these islands during the American war; but they were retaken, in 1783, by a detachment from St. Augustine.

The great Bahama bank is a natural curiosity. It is a vast accumulation of sand, above 100 leagues in length and forty in breadth. It appears to consist, in a great measure, of the reliques of sea-shells in the form of sand, more or less worn and rounded by the action of water. In many parts of this bank, the depth of water is only from fourteen to eighteen feet, and the sand seems to be underlaid by calcareous rocks.

Of the Bahama isles, the largest is 70 miles long and nine broad. This is called the Great-Bahama; but New-Providence is more known and distinguished, and is the seat of government for all the inhabited portions of the groupe. Nassau, the chief town, is neatly built of stone, and has some handsome public structures. Indian corn, yams, and cassava, are abundantly raised in these islands; cotton is cultivated with great success; and timber and dye-woods are liberally afforded. The shores and creeks abound with turtles and excellent fish; and many birds frequent the islands, particularly wild ducks, snipes, pelicans, and flamingoes.

MEXICO, including CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1900 } Breadth 1550 }	between { 90 and 122 west longitude. { 17 and 40 north latitude. }	550,000.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded to the south-east by the new state of Guatemala, on the south and the west by the Pacific ocean, on the north partly by unappropriated territories and partly by Louisiana, and on the east by the gulf of Mexico.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] Mountainous ridges, precipices, cataracts, delicious vales, fertile plains, picturesque lakes and rivers, and an union of the trees and plants of the old and new worlds, diversify the scene in the Mexican territories, and attract the attention of the admirers of nature. The ranges of the Andes, which traverse South-America, are concentrated at the isthmus of Darien, and, passing between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans at a comparatively low elevation, expand (when they enter North-America) into a large district of table-land, varying from 6000 to 8500 feet above the level of the sea. This land preserves its height as far as Durango, and then insensibly declines. Groupes of lofty volcanic mountains rise from it in various parts. One, which is called the smoking mountain (*Popoca-Tepetl*), is 17,500 feet in height.

In the peninsula of Old-California, a mountainous chain pervades the centre; but its elevation is inconsiderable. That country in general wears a dreary aspect. New-California is more picturesque, and better furnished with wood and water.

RIVERS, LAKES.] Mexico has the benefit of many large rivers,

among which are the Alvarado, Coatzacoalco, and Tabasco. The principal lakes are those of Nicaragua, Chapalan, and Pazaquaro; those of Tezucuo and Chalco occupy a great part of the vale of Mexico, which is the finest tract of country in the whole state. The waters of Chalco are sweet; those of Tezucuo brackish. These two lakes are united by a canal. The lower lake, or lake Tezucuo, 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.

METALS, MINERALS.] Mexico is famous for silver; and gold is not only found in the brooks and rivers, but also in mines, though in small quantities. The mines of silver are found in several parts; but the richest spot in that respect is the neighbourhood of Guanaxuato, where one mine, during forty years, did not yield less to its proprietors, in annual profit, than from 80,000 to 120,000 pounds sterling. Some of the mines, since the revolution, have been wrought by British skill and labor, but not with that productive effect which was fondly expected by greedy speculators. The mountains likewise abound in iron, copper, and lead. Here are also found various kinds of precious stones; as emeralds, turquoises, amethysts, and a few diamonds.

CLIMATE, SOIL.] Mexico, being partly within the torrid zone, is in that division excessively hot; and on the eastern coast, where the land is low, marshy, and constantly flooded in the rainy seasons, it is likewise very insalubrious. 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, is much better in quality, and full of plantations. The climate of Old California is very fine, and the sky is generally serene and cloudless; but the soil is sandy and barren, with the exception of a few places, where maize and manioc grow vigorously, and the vines yield rich grapes. In New-California, the climate is mild and agreeable, and the black spongy earth is highly favorable to cultivation. In some parts of this province there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, settling on the rose-leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having the sweetness without the whiteness of refined sugar. We are also informed that the interior of the country contains plains of salt, quite firm, and as clear as crystal.

PRODUCE.] Like all the tropical countries, Mexico seems to be more productive of fruit than of grain; yet the crops of corn are in many parts rich and luxuriant. In the temperate districts, the wheat is of a fine quality, equal to that of Andalusia; but maize, the manioc root, and the banana, are more generally cultivated for the purposes of sustenance, and the maguey furnishes a favorite fermented liquor called *pulque*, while its fibres supply a sort of hemp and paper, and its prickles are used for pins and nails. The fruits of the country are pine-apples, mangoes, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, cocoa-nuts, and other kinds. Mexico produces also a prodigious quantity of sugar, especially toward the gulf. Many gum-yielding trees are found in different parts; and cedar and logwood abound about the bays of Campechè and Honduras; the maho-tree also, which has a bark with such strong fibres, that they twist and make ropes of it. There is also a tree which is called light-wood, being as light as cork, of which they make floats to carry their merchandise on the coasts. But the two most valuable products of this country, next to its gold and silver, are cochineal and cocoa (or cacao). 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 color. It is from this juice that the cochineal de-

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rives 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 a cordial. The nut, 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. This country likewise produces silk, but not in such quantity as to form a remarkable part of its exports. 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 many thousands, and are killed merely for their hides. Among the native animals are the puma and jaguar, or American lion and tiger; the Mexican or hunchbacked dog, a kind of porcupine; wild cats, foxes, squirrels, armadillos; also the *cocicote*, a quadruped which seems to be compounded of the wolf, the fox, and the dog. Venomous serpents and other dangerous reptiles may be supposed to thrive in this country; but they are not formidably numerous or particularly mischievous. Eagles, vultures, beautiful hawks, and an amazing number of smaller birds, of whose plumage the general cast is plain, are observed in various parts; but, of those species which are peculiar to Mexico, we have no accurate accounts.

CHIEF TOWNS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] Tenochtitlan, Motezuma's capital, was situated on a groupe of islands in the midst of the lake Tezcuco; but, from the progress of evaporation, occasioned by the great heat of the sun, and in some measure from the effects of draining, that lake consists at present of a comparatively small body of water, and the present city of Mexico is situated entirely on the main land: yet the cathedral occupies exactly the ground on which the chief pagan temple stood at the time of the Spanish invasion. This church is about 500 feet in length, and has a grand and imposing aspect, but its exterior is not uniformly elegant or magnificent; for a part of the front is low and of bad Gothic architecture, while the other part, which is of recent construction, is built in the Italian style, and displays both symmetry and beauty. The interior is gaudily rather than tastefully decorated. Like most of the churches in this part of America, it exhibits a profusion of massive carved and gilt ornaments, pictures, and painted statues. Within the enclosure is a cylindrical mass of porphyry, adorned with sculptured figures, called, from its subserviency to the immolation of human victims, the Stone of Sacrifices.

Few cities are more neatly and regularly built than Mexico, and in few can a finer place be seen than the grand square. While the cathedral dignifies the eastern side, the palace of the government and the public offices appear on the north; and handsome ranges of stone-built houses occupy and adorn the other sides. In the centre of this square is a colossal equestrian statue of Charles IV. of Spain, on a pedestal of Mexican marble: it was executed by Tolsa, and is said to be the finest specimen of casting in the New World.

Mexico has some, but not many, useful establishments. An university, a public library, a school of mines, and several charitable foundations, may here be mentioned; and there is an institution, which, though it has not a dignified aspect or a pompous appellation, is very serviceable to the community. It is, in fact, an office for the loan of money on pledges of property; and the honest poor are thus accommodated, while the facilities for disposing of stolen goods are diminished.

Although the fine arts do not greatly flourish in Mexico, and some of the mechanic arts are not very skilfully cultivated, yet the people of the

race display an aptitude for the arts of imitation, and also excel in various branches of industry. The manufacture of gold and silver lace is carried on with considerable dexterity and taste, coach-making is practised in a neat and substantial manner, carving in wood is well executed, and other arts attest the skill and experience of many of the citizens. In those branches in which they fail, they have lately been instructed and assisted by British emigrants.

The population of this great city, in 1802, was calculated by Humboldt at 137,000, of whom 2500 were Europeans, 65,000 were Creoles, 26,500 mestizoes (the offspring of white persons and of the descendants of the original natives), 10,000 mulattoes, and 33,000 individuals of the ancient race. About 3000 of that number were priests, monks, and nuns. According to the report of a late writer, the present aggregate is not less than 155,000.

Vera-Cruz, situated near the Gulf of Mexico, is a well-built town, and a place of considerable trade; but it is one of the most unhealthy spots in the world, and its population and importance are gradually declining, though it is the only port on the eastern coast that can receive large ships. In 1802, the number of inhabitants, exclusive of the militia and seafaring people, did not exceed 16,000; and the present amount is much less.

Puebla de los Angeles, in 1820, contained about 60,000 persons, and its population has since rather increased than diminished. The town is compactly and uniformly built. The houses are of stone, generally of two stories, with flat roofs; and the fronts of many of them are inlaid with painted tiles, highly glazed, while others have their fronts gaudily and fantastically painted, like the houses of Genoa. The churches amount to sixty-nine, and those which have not a magnificent exterior are internally rich and splendid. The people formerly excelled in the woollen manufacture; but that of glass is now the best.

If population be a proof of the flourishing state of a town, Guadaluaxara must be a thriving city; for it is next in that respect to the capital of the new state, having above 65,000 inhabitants. Guanaxuato, though a mining town, is far less populous.

Santa-Fè, the chief town in the northern part of this state, stands at no great distance from the Rio Grande del Norte, or the great river of the North, which rises in the latitude of 40 degrees, and falls into the great gulf, after a winding course of 1100 miles. The town is in some degree fortified, because the citizens and the provincials are exposed to the hostilities of the unsubdued tribes of barbarians. The houses are, in general, only one story high, and the windows, in most of them, are composed of flakes of talc: The neighbouring country is mountainous and barren, and very scantily peopled:

The seat of government, both for Old and New California, is Monterey: It stands in the latter division, and is rather a garrison than a town. The two provinces, at first, were chiefly colonised by ecclesiastics, who, with the aid of soldiers, undertook the conversion of the rude inhabitants. Thus missions and garrisons were spread over the country; but the people have not derived, from this kind of association, all the blessings of good government. The northernmost station is Port-Francisco, which has a handsome church for the converted natives, and a monastery for the missionaries.

With regard to the population of the whole Mexican state, we cannot speak with perfect accuracy: but it is supposed to be not less than six millions and a quarter. The people of the race found by Cortez at the conquest form, perhaps, two-fifths of the aggregate number.

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The manners of the various races may be expected to differ. The resident Spaniards, before the revolution, were not inclined to amalgamate even with the Creoles, who, though natives of Mexico, were of European extraction. They felt still greater contempt for the other races, and considered them as classes of subordinate beings; and the Creoles were disposed to join them in this unwarrantable arrogance. It has been observed, that the Creoles had "all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, without that courage, firmness, and patience, which constitute the praise-worthy part of the Spanish character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicated the greatest part of their time to loitering and inactive pleasures. They were luxurious without variety or elegance, and expensive with great parade and little convenience; and their general character was no more than a grave and specious insignificance. From idleness and constitution, almost their whole business was amour and intrigue; and their ladies, in consequence, were not distinguished by chastity and domestic virtues." The coloring of this picture is apparently overcharged, but it is not destitute of the features of truth.

The genuine Mexicans, more particularly the copper-colored provincials, are described by Humboldt as grave, melancholy, and silent, except when they are under the influence of intoxication or very strong excitement. They throw a mysterious air over the most indifferent actions. In their features the more violent passions are seldom painted; but there is something terrific in the change, when they suddenly pass from a state of repose to violent agitation. Their music and dancing partake of that want of gaiety by which they are characterised. They were long divided into the noble natives and the tributaries. The former were, in some respects, a privileged class, while the latter were scarcely in a better condition than slavery, were clothed in coarse tunics, and went about barefooted.

The mestizos are nearly white, with a skin of remarkable transparency. The small beard, small hands and feet, and an obliquity of the eyes, indicate their descent from the old Mexicans. They are of a much milder character than the mulattoes, who are distinguished by violence of passion, volubility of speech, great activity and energy.

By an American gentleman who lately visited Mexico, the different casts are thus characterised.—"The Creoles, satisfied with the enjoyment of their large estates, and with the consideration which their rank and wealth confer, seek no other distinction; and they are not remarkable for their attainments, or for the strictness of their morals. The lawyers, who, in fact, exercise much more influence over the people, rank next to the Creole nobles. They are the younger branches of noble families, or the sons of Europeans, and are distinguished by shrewdness and intelligence. Next in importance are the merchants and shopkeepers; for the former are not sufficiently numerous to form a separate class: they are wealthy, and might possess influence, but have hitherto taken little part in the politics of the country, probably from the fear of losing their property. In the towns, the laboring class includes all casts and colors; they are industrious and orderly, and view with interest what is passing around them; most of them can read, and, in the large towns, papers and pamphlets are hawked about the streets, and sold at a cheap rate. The laboring class, in the country, is likewise composed of different casts: they are sober and industrious, but so ignorant and superstitious that they may be led by their priests or masters to good or evil. Their apathy has in some manner been overcome by the long struggle for independence, in which most of them bore a part: but they still remain under the influence and direction of the

priests. The last class, unknown as such in a well-regulated society, consists of beggars and idlers, drones that prey upon the community, and who, having nothing to lose, are always ready either to swell the cry of popular ferment, or to lend their aid in favor of imperial tyranny."

Among the females of Mexico, the most polished, next to the Europeans, may be supposed to be the Creoles. They are not, indeed, remarkably well informed, but are good-humored, obliging, and hospitable, and are fond of conversation, music, and dancing. The women of the old race are less lively, but more attentive to decorum and morality. All classes of females are outwardly strict in devotional observances; but it does not thence follow that their hearts are much impressed with real piety. Religious processions and festivals are numerous attended; and, on these occasions, the ladies pride themselves on being well-dressed. In the streets, a black dress generally prevails, with a veil instead of a hat or bonnet; but, in the domestic or friendly party, that sombre hue is generally discarded. A worked *chemise*, a light open jacket, and an embroidered or spangled petticoat of bright-colored soft cloth, are the usual coverings of the fair form. The women of the lower orders, in general, wear only a petticoat and short jacket, and plait their long tresses with red tape.

The gentlemen are fond of finery in their dress. A large hat, colored and laced, a worked shirt, embroidered small-clothes (frequently of colored leather, decorated with broad silver lace), a jacket of printed calico, a cloak of velvet or fine cloth, and ornamented gaiters, compose the apparel of a great number, while the inferior people wear a straw hat, a jacket of coarse woollen cloth or leather, short breeches, sometimes trowsers, and rough sandals, instead of the soft shoes of the gentry. But it must be observed, that the dress varies in the different provinces, so as not to be fully described without superfluous minuteness.

ANTIQUITIES.] Although the Mexican empire was a novelty to the discoverers of America, it was not then a new state or an infant government. How long it had subsisted before the time of the conquest, we cannot ascertain; but monuments of civilisation, anterior by some ages to that æra, have been found in various parts of the country. The palace of Mitla, in the province of Oaxaca, is one of the most remarkable of these curious remains. It was constructed over the tombs of princes, and the ruins still exhibit walls covered with a kind of mosaic work,—a vast hall, the ceiling of which is supported by six columns of porphyry,—a spacious court, surrounded by small structures,—an interior court, galleries, &c.

Between Mexico and Puebla de los Angeles, a pyramidal hill, 177 feet high, attracts the attention of antiquaries to the east of Cholula. It is an artificial elevation, constructed of unburned bricks and clay, in four stories. In its interior is a square chamber, formed of stone, and supported by beams of cypress. It is not arched, but the bricks must have been so arranged as to diminish the pressure upon the roof. On the summit was a temple, which has been superseded by a catholic chapel.—In the province of Vera-Cruz, near Papantla, is a pyramid much lower than the other, but more symmetrically built of well-cut blocks of stone. At Palenque, on the frontier of Guatemala, extensive ruins have been discovered. The interior of the largest building found on this spot exhibits a style resembling the Gothic; but the chambers, though not ill constructed, are disgraced by stucco devices of the rudest kind. Another edifice has square pillars, an outer gallery, and a paved hall, ornamented with female figures in basso-relievo of the natural size.

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was subjected to illiberal restrictions by the jealousy of the Spanish court : yet the produce of the country found its way into the ports of the chief European nations. A *flota* from Cadiz, composed of three men of war as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant-ships, annually arrived at Vera-Cruz about the beginning of November, with a cargo consisting of every commodity and manufacture of Europe. When all the goods were landed and disposed of, the fleet took in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities for Europe. In May the ships sailed to the Havanna, where they met the galleons, which carried on the trade of Terra-Firma by Carthagená, and of Peru by Panama and Porto-Bello. When all were collected, they steered for Old-Spain.

Acapulco, on the coast of the Pacific, was the port by which the communication was long kept up between Spanish America and the East-Indies. About the month of December the great galleon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, annually arrived there. The cargoes of these ships (for the convoy, though in a clandestine manner, likewise carried goods) consisted of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the East. At the same time the annual ship from Lima came in, and was not computed to bring less than two millions of pieces-of-eight in silver, beside quicksilver, and other valuable commodities, to be expended in the purchase of the galleon's cargo. Several other ships from different ports of Chilè and Peru, met on 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 small gainers by it; for, as they allowed the 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 almost the whole cargo of the galleon. When the galleons were laid aside, smaller vessels, called register-ships, were employed; but the trade was still conducted with impolicy on the part of the Spaniards. As the Philippine islands are still under the yoke of Spain, this branch of commerce is now suspended, while all other branches are opened by the liberality of the rising states.

GOVERNMENT AND REVENUE.] Under the sway of his catholic majesty, the civil government of Mexico was administered by tribunals called Audiencias, which bore a resemblance to the old parliaments of France. In these courts the viceroy presided. He had also the patronage of all the churches,—a circumstance of great moment where so much power was in the hands of the clergy. This government is now exploded, and a new form has been adopted, of which we shall take notice in the history of the revolution.

The public revenue of New-Spain, including that of New-Mexico, in 1789, exceeded nineteen millions of dollars; out of which, after deducting the charges of the provincial government, and sending large sums for the use of other colonies, only 4,800,000 dollars were received by the court of Madrid. During the late contest for independence, the revenue was found to be inadequate to the demands of the increased expenditure; and, therefore, applications were made to the opulent citizens of London for several loans. One was for twenty millions of dollars, and another for sixteen millions. In the legislative session of 1825, the minister of finance calculated the expenditure at 17,986,670 dollars, and the revenue at 10,690,600; but a committee, after an investigation of the subject, gave a

very different statement, alleging that the produce of national property, the commercial duties and all other taxes, the tenths of the bishoprics, and part of a foreign loan, made up a sum which would defray every expense, and afford a surplus of two millions of dollars.

RELIGION.] In the creed and worship of Mexico no alterations have been made by the new government; for the popular reformers, content with the doctrine and discipline to which they have been habituated, are willing to preserve their faith, while they discard their intolerance. There are eight bishops in the establishment, whose revenues, being too large for the purposes of piety, ought at least to be rendered subservient to the augmentation of the incomes of the inferior clergy.

HISTORY.] The early history of this country is involved in obscurity, and no dependence can be placed on the result of the pretended researches into this subject. Humboldt is of opinion, that the Toltecs left China, and proceeded to the north-eastern coast of Asia, whence they crossed over by Behring's Strait to America, and gradually passed so far to the southward as to colonise Mexico in the seventh century; that they introduced agriculture and some mechanic arts, and were followed at various times by the Chichimecs, Nahuatlacs, Acolhuans, and Aztecs, the last of which nations arrived in the year 1196. From these communities sprang the subjects of Motezuma, of whose state, as well as of the Spanish conquest, we have already taken notice.

When Spain kept possession of those extensive Trans-Atlantic countries which Columbus opened to her view, her government had a degree of vigor and efficiency which promised to keep the settlements, however distant, in full subserviency to her will; and this submission she continued to enjoy long after her energy had declined. Commotions sometimes arose, but they were speedily quelled; and it was not before the treacherous usurpation of the Spanish throne, in 1808, that the colonists were induced, by the captivity of their legitimate prince, to turn their thoughts to the assumption of independence. To submit to the base usurper would have been a great disgrace, unworthy of the Spanish name; and, therefore, when protection ceased on the part of the former government, the indignant people, in some of the South-American provinces, erected the standard of independence. The colonists in North-America at length followed the example of justifiable revolt. The viceroy of Mexico, in 1810, was Iturrigaray, who, when he received contradictory orders from the divided government of Spain, proposed the formation of a provisional junta, but was arrested by the royalists, and sent to Europe. The tyranny of Venegas, the new viceroy, hastened that explosion which he wished to prevent. The descendants of the original natives, led by an obscure priest, took up arms in the province of Guanajuato, and, being joined by the garrisons of several towns, commenced an intestine war. The insurgents were severely harassed in several conflicts; but, under the command of another priest, named Morelos, they continued the war with great spirit. Shocking cruelties were committed on both sides, but more particularly by the royalists. After the death of Morelos, who was captured and put to death, Xavier Mina was invited to act in the cause of independence; but he was so ill-supported by the revolters, that he could not save himself from military execution, and the war then declined into the desultory operations of detached parties. But, in 1821, don Augustin Iturbide, a Mexican officer, gave a new stimulus to the revolutionary zeal, by proposing that Ferdinand VII. should be allowed to be the king of Mexico or New-Spain, on condition of his submitting to constitutional limitations, and declaring the realm inde-

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pendent of Old-Spain, and of every other country. The proposal was adopted by the greater part of the army; and, in the following year, deputies met for the purpose of political reform. Iturbide now procured from the soldiery and the people a tumultuary vote for his elevation to the imperial dignity; and the choice was reluctantly sanctioned by the representatives. But this usurpation could not be expected to be durable. Don Augustin, resenting the opposition of the deputies to his various proposals, dissolved the assembly; and, by this and other arbitrary measures, exposed himself to general indignation. Harassed by insurrections, he resigned his power, in 1823, and embarked for Europe. General Bravo, and two other men of courage and talent, were allowed to assume the executive authority; and, under their auspices, a "representative, popular, federal republic" was organised with general consent, though not without opposition. Under the pretence of allaying the dissensions which arose in the new state, Iturbide rashly ventured to reappear within its confines; but he was treated as Murat was in Italy, and put to death as an outlaw. In 1825, the new government was brought into full and regular exercise, and the nation exulted in the acquisition of independence.

The republican state was divided into sixteen departments, extending from New-California to Chiapa. The legislative power was assigned by the constitution to a senate, and to a chamber of deputies freely chosen, constituting the general congress of the confederacy: the executive authority was intrusted to a native citizen, not under 35 years of age: all his decrees and orders were to be signed by the secretary of that branch of administration to which the business belonged; and he and the vice-president were liable, during the limited term of office, and for one subsequent year, to be impeached and tried for illegal acts and unconstitutional conduct. A supreme court of judicature was also framed for the whole state, to which appeals might be made from the provincial tribunals.

GUATEMALA, or CENTRAL AMERICA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 650 } Breadth 450 }	between { 84 and 94 West longitude. { 10 and 17 North latitude. }	} 95,000

BOUNDARIES.] The territories of this new republic are bounded on the west by the province of Vera-Cruz, on the north by Yucatan and the gulf of Mexico, on the east by the same gulf, and on the south by the Pacific ocean, and, at the south-eastern extremity, by that isthmus which divides North from South America, or by the frontiers of the Colombian state.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] This is, for the most part, a level country; but it exhibits a mountainous range, apparently a continuation of the Andes, created with volcanic cones. Near Old-Guatemala is a mountain, the circumference of which at the base is said to be above 45 miles. Its lower parts are cultivated, the middle region is woody, and the summit is covered (but not perpetually) with snow.

LAKES, RIVERS.] The most extensive lake is that of Nicaragua, about

400 miles in circumference. It communicates on the north-west with the Lake of Leon by a navigable channel; and both are sufficiently deep for large vessels. A canal of only twelve miles, it is said, would be the only requisite for completing a navigation in this part of the country, from the Pacific to the Atlantic. Among the rivers are the Lempa and the Guacalat. The former is the widest stream in the whole state, and the latter, at Istapa, where it falls into the Pacific, contributes to form, with the coast, an excellent anchorage.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The climate is warm, and in some parts so humid as to be insalubrious. The soil is in general fertile, and the products are numerous and valuable. In several districts, the quality of the land is so peculiarly adapted to the growth of timber, that, after a tree has been cut down, the root will send out five or six shoots, which, in four years, will become very considerable trees. Some of the cedars exceed seven fathoms in circumference. Wood, admirably calculated for masts, is very abundant, and the *pita*, which is much more fit for rope-making than the *esparto*, grows in great luxuriance. All sorts of grain, the finest fruits, the chocolate-nut, sugar, rich balsams, tobacco, indigo, various gums, &c. are furnished in plenty.

METALS.] The province called *la Costa Rica* abounds with mines of gold, silver, and copper; but they are in a great measure neglected, though the new government is inclined to promote the proper working of them by English skill, industry, and capital.

ANIMALS.] These are, in general, the same with those of Mexico: but Juarros mentions some which, he says, are peculiar to Guatemala. The zachin is one of these: it is a quadruped resembling a rat, which preys upon snakes and poultry. Two species of birds, called the quetzal and the raxon, also confine themselves to this country: they are not vocalists, but are admired for their beautiful green plumage.

PROVINCES AND CHIEF TOWNS.] This state is divided into fifteen provinces, two of which contributed with other districts to form the ancient kingdom of Quichè, the most powerful government in this part of New-Spain. Some of these provinces are small and insignificant, while others are large and flourishing. The most populous is that of San-Salvador, in which, it is said, about 200,000 persons reside. In this part of the new state, the people of the old race are more civilised than in any other part of Guatemala, and coalesce more cordially with those inhabitants who are of Spanish origin. The province of Comayagua or Honduras is that part of the American continent, on which the Spaniards first landed; between this province and that of Nicaragua, are several districts, peopled by the descendants of the original natives, and known by the appellation of the Mosquito Shore. The English long exercised some authority over these tribes for commercial purposes; but, in 1786, Great-Britain consented to abstain from all exercise of power in those parts. The paltry town of Poyais, well known for the delusive colonial attempt of Mac-Gregor, is situated in this territory. That adventurer affirmed that the district was unappropriated ground; but it is now claimed by the Colombian state in a tone which will probably extort acquiescence.

The old city of Guatemala being greatly damaged by an earthquake in 1773, the present capital was erected on a spot more distant from that volcano which had occasioned such havoc. It stands on a spacious plain, fertilised by various rivulets and lakes, under the influence of a benignant climate. The houses, though built low for fear of earthquakes, are commodious, pretty in appearance, and have gardens and orchards attached to them. The principal square is handsome, and is ornamented by

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a colonnade. Near its eastern side is the cathedral, built by an Italian artist, in a correct and magnificent style of architecture. On one side of the cathedral is the archiepiscopal palace, and on the other a college. In the same part of the town are the palaces of government and of justice, and various public offices. The churches are elegantly constructed; and attention is particularly arrested by a beautiful amphitheatre of stone, destined for the barbarous amusement of bull-baiting. There is a well-built university, where law, theology, medicine, mathematics, experimental philosophy, and natural history, are taught. The senate-house, and the hall in which the popular representatives meet, are not striking edifices; but the use to which they are applied compensates every deficiency in that respect. The city is inhabited by 40,000 persons, who are characterised by Juarros as "humane, courteous, liberal, docile, and inclined to piety, but too generally prone to pusillanimity and indolence."

The city of San-Salvador is pleasantly situated, well-built, and has about 15,000 inhabitants; but it has very little trade, except in indigo.

Leon, near the lake of that name, is an episcopal see, and has the advantage of an university: but, in point of trade, it is less flourishing than the village of Masaya, in the same province.—The most thriving and opulent village in this state is Quezaltenango, which has about 12,000 inhabitants, among whom are many able workmen in the linen, cotton, and woolen branches of manufacture.

POPULATION.] It is very difficult to ascertain the number of inhabitants in this or any other of the new states. Some have swelled the amount to two millions; but, in all probability, it is less than a million and a half.

RELIGION, GOVERNMENT, AND REVENUE.] Of all the states rescued from the Spanish yoke, the predominant religion is that of the church of Rome, which the original invaders, like the Arabian pseudo-prophet, propagated by sanguinary violence; but the new governments leave the votaries of other creeds unmolested.

Guatemala has the benefit of a government founded on popular representation, and its courts of justice are better constituted than those which acted under the tyranny of Spain. One of the first acts of the independent administration evinced a due regard for liberty. No one who was concerned in the slave trade was to be deemed a citizen; every person belonging to the republic was declared free; and all strangers who arrived in its territory, if they were slaves before, were instantly released from that species of degradation.

In consequence of the reduction of taxes, the revenue of Guatemala became so inadequate to the necessary expenditure, that it was found expedient to borrow seven millions and a half of dollars from the opulent citizens of London. Under the old government, the revenue did not exceed a million of dollars; and it is said that the charges of the present establishment may be defrayed by one half of that amount; but this sum is evidently too small for the reasonable expenses of the state.

HISTORY.] On this head it will be sufficient to observe, that the example of revolt and independence did not forcibly influence the provincials of Guatemala before the year 1824; and then don Manuel Aria and other spirited citizens proposed the erection of a new state, as the republic of Mexico might be expected to allow a little defalcation from its spacious territory. The revolution appears to have been quietly settled: deputies were chosen for the purpose of framing a constitution fit for freemen; and, when the new code had been wisely adjusted, an upper and lower assembly, like our houses of lords and commons, began to act for the public good.

COLOMBIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1300 } Breadth 1050 }	between { 60 and 80, West longitude. } { 3,30 S. and 12, N. latitude. }	600,000.

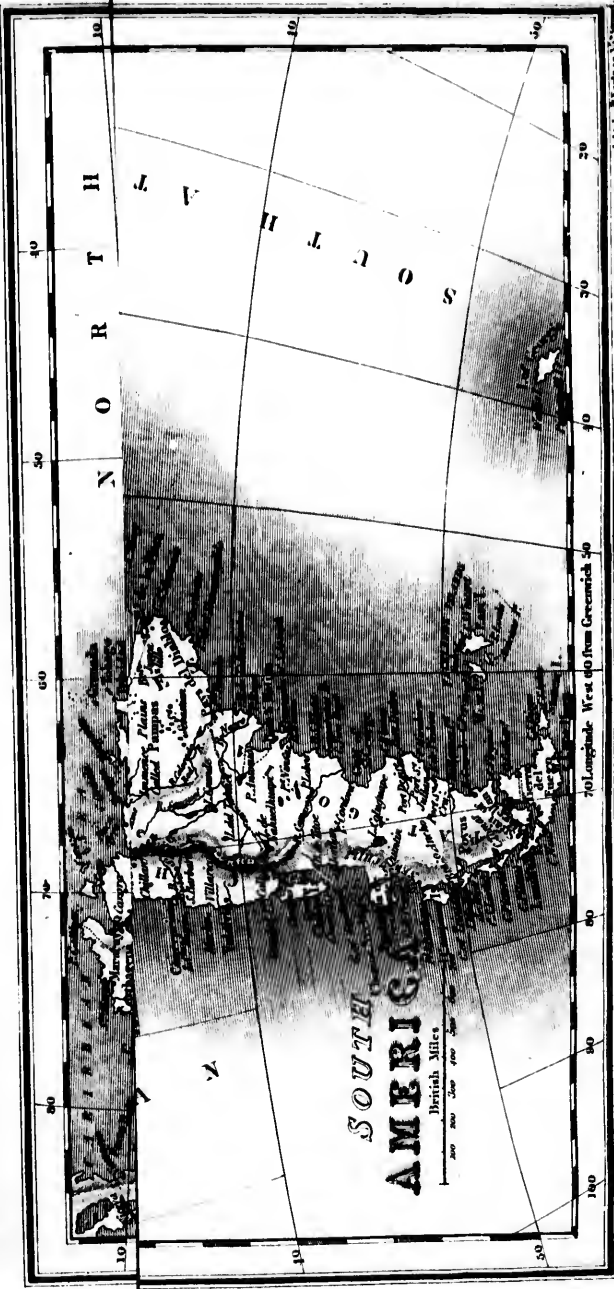
BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] It is bounded on the north by the Caribbean sea, and extends so far to the north-west as to include Veragua, which is properly a part of North America. On the south it is bounded by Amazonia and Guiana, on the south-west by Peru, and on the north-east by the Atlaptic. It consists of three grand divisions,—Venezuela, New-Granada, and Quito; and in these are twelve departments, which are subdivided into thirty-eight provinces.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] Many parts of this state are very mountainous, and embosomed amidst the lofty summits are fine valleys, which had been long the seats of industry and civilisation, before America was known to the Europeans. The mountains, which are a prolongation of the Cordillera of the Andes, compose three great ranges, two of which, the eastern and the central, form the eastern boundary of the basin of Almaguer, and run at no great distance from each other until they reach the fifth degree of northern latitude. The former then proceeds to the coast of Coro, having one side so precipitous as to preclude cultivation, while on the other some plains recline which form an extensive table-land, situated in some parts at an elevation of more than 8000 feet above the sea. The central range pursues its course to Carthageua, imprisoning in its way (between itself and the western Cordillera), the valley of Cauca, which, if it could be properly cultivated, would be one of the most productive districts of Colombia. In this range are several volcanoes and *nevadas* or snowy summits, one of which (that of Tolima) is the highest spot in any of the chains of the Andes to the north of the equator, being 17,190 feet above the sea. But, to the south of that line, there is a mountain almost 4000 feet higher than the Tolima;—we mean Chimborazo, in the department of Quito. The bulk of this mighty mass is so prodigious, that the part which the eye embraces at once, near the limit of the snow, is above four miles in breadth. Humboldt had the courage to venture within 1600 feet of the summit, being aided in his ascent by a train of volcanic rocks destitute of snow. A wide crevice then obstructed his progress, and he descended to a more secure station.

The *llanos*, or plains, extend over immense spaces with such a general uniformity of level, that in some parts, for thirty square leagues, there is not an eminence higher than a foot. They are miserably dull and dreary; but they abound with pastoral wealth.

BAYS.] The principal bays are those of Panama and St. Michael in the South Sea; the Bay of Porto-Bello, the Gulf of Darien, Carthageua bay and harbour, and the Gulf of Maracaybo or Venezuela.

LAKE, RIVERS.] The lake of Maracaybo, in the province of that name, is a sea of fresh water nearly circular, and about 90 miles in diameter. As its shores are unhealthy, the natives build their hovels upon stakes of hard wood, whence arose the name of *Venezuela* or Little



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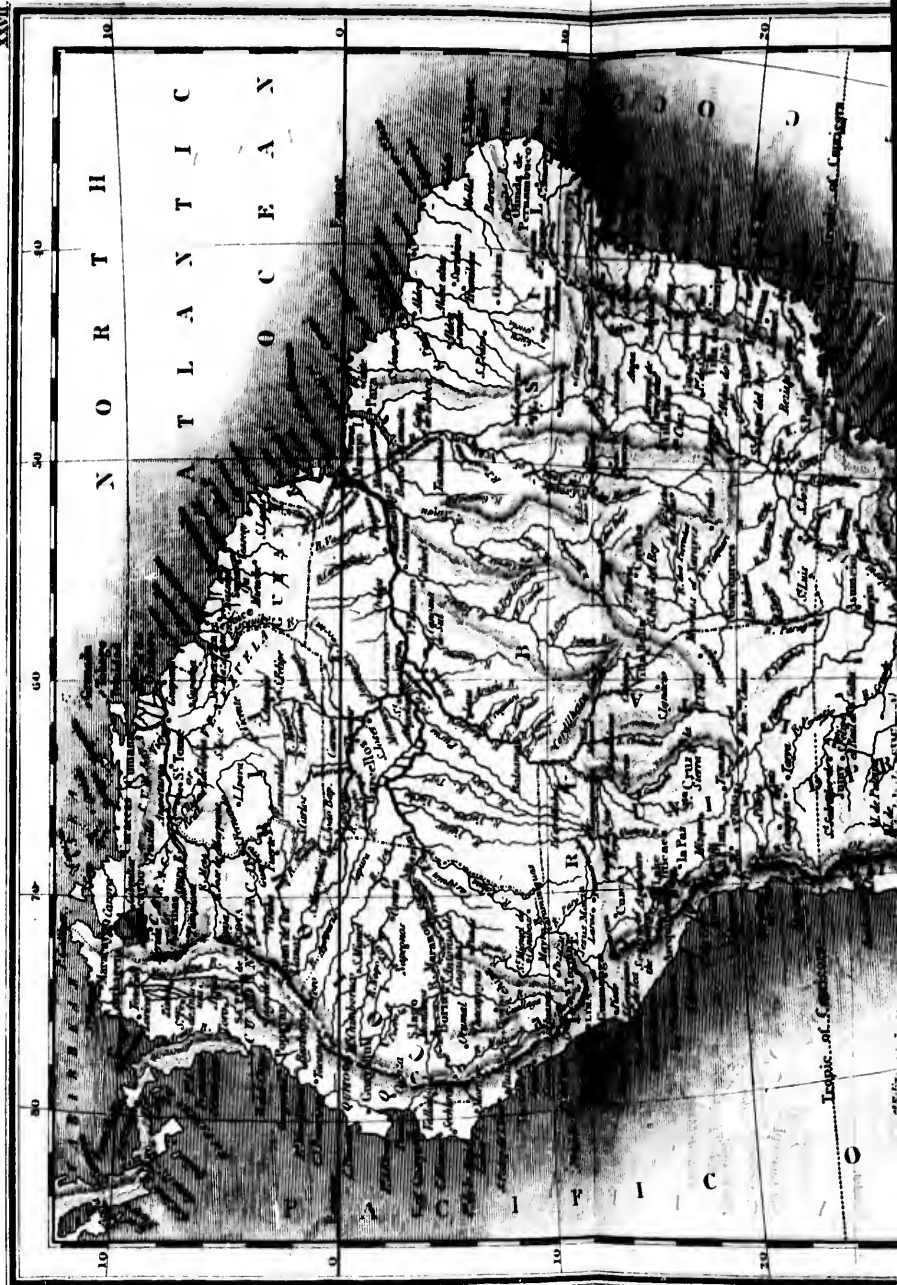
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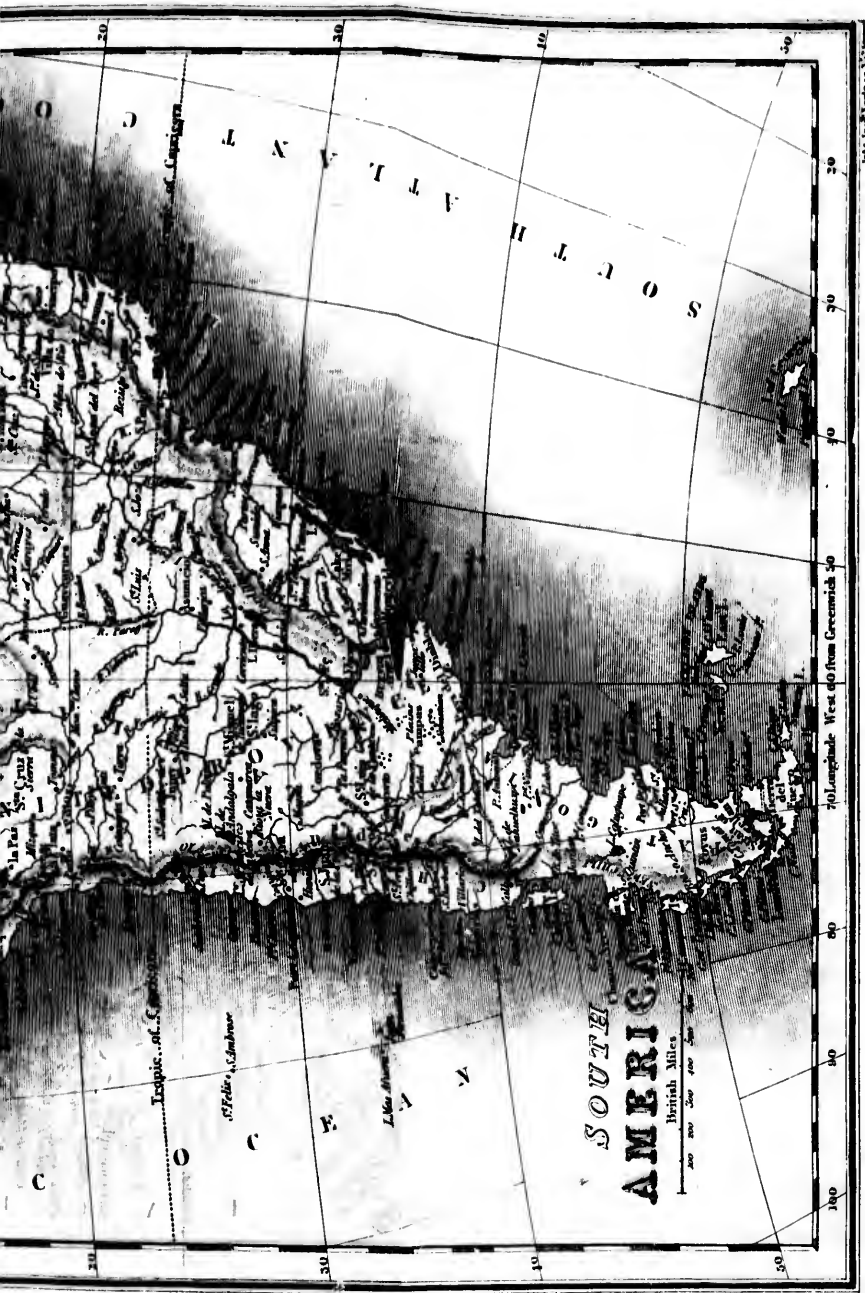
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Venice. This lake is navigable even for large vessels, and the Salia and many other rivers convey to it the products of the interior. The great river Orinoco rises in the eastern division of this state, and runs to the westward until it is joined by the Guaviare; it then flows to the northward, meets the Apure, and afterwards takes an easterly direction to the sea. For more than 700 miles from its mouth, it presents no serious obatacles to the progress of a steam-vessel; but rapids and cararacts obstruct the navigation in other parts. Its course is lengthened by its windings to 1250 miles. The Magdalena issues from the lake of Papas, and runs about 900 miles before it discharges itself into the Caribbean sea. Some parts of the country through which it passes are cultivated and flourishing; but the greater part is unhealthy and desolate.

METALS, MINERALS.] The western division of Colombia is more productive of gold than any other part of the country. This metal, however, is not obtained by the usual process of mining, but by the washing of an auriferous soil. The gold-washers, before the revolution, sometimes procured as much metal as was valued at three millions of dollars; but the subsequent produce has been less considerable. Some mines of silver were worked long ago, but are now found to be not sufficiently productive: those which are supposed to be the richest are near the northern extremity of the valley of Cauca. Several mines of copper have been worked with effect, particularly those of Aroa, in the department of Venezuela. Iron ore is known to abound in the mountainous country bordering on the plain of Bogota; and, though that useful mineral was neglected by the impolicy of the Spanish government, the new rulers of the state will, without doubt, extract it from its recesses. The same plain is rich in pit-coal, and in the mountains to the north-east of the city are some celebrated salt mines.

Among the speculative companies recently formed in Great Britain, there was one styled the Colombian Mining Association, which undertook the working of four silver mines in the province of Mariquita. About 150 men were sent out with proper machinery; and it is probable that this speculation will not be so unproductive as to prove, like many other schemes of the present day, a mere bubble. Another set of schemers purchased the privilege of fishing for pearls with machinery on the coast of Colombia. These pearls are not of so beautiful a water as those which are found in the Californian gulf, but their forms are more pleasing and regular. Though the adventurers, in their early attempts, did not procure any valuable pearls, perseverance may render them more successful. The grant which they have obtained is not an absolute monopoly; for it does not preclude the negroes or the natives from plunging into the sea in search of pearls, without the use of the diving-bell.

CLIMATE.] The heat of this country is frequently intense, and it raises the vapor of the sea, which is precipitated in such heavy rains, as inundate the country to a great extent. In the interior there is a greater variety of climate; but Colombia, in general, cannot properly be called a healthy country.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The soil is, in many parts, remarkably rich and fruitful; but the coasts generally consist of barren sand. The productions raised for ordinary subsistence are, maize, yams, potatoes, the fruit of the plantain, and the yuca root, a valuable substitute for bread. The torrid zone is unfavorable to the growth of wheat; yet it is produced in perfection in various parts of Venezuela, and on the table lands of Cundinamarca and Boyaca, where the mean heat of the year nearly corresponds with that of the summer in Scotland. The chocolate-nut,

coffee, sugar, tobacco, indigo, a bark like the Peruvian, sarsaparilla, vanilla, cochineal, lignum quassia, and many resins and gums, are also reckoned among the useful commodities of the country. The cotton plant grows luxuriantly in this climate; but it is not properly prepared for use. The trees most remarkable for their dimensions are the caoba, the cedar, the maria, and balsam-tree. The manchineel tree bears a fruit resembling an apple; but, under this specious appearance, it 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 exceedingly bitter. This is said to be an infallible remedy for the bite of the most venomous vipers and serpents, which are very numerous in this country.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North-America we have taken notice of many of the animals which are also found in the southern parts. Among those peculiar to this country, the most remarkable is the sloth. This creature bears a resemblance to an ordinary monkey in shape and size, but is of a most wretched appearance, with bare hams and feet, and a corrugated skin. He stands in no need of either chain or hutch, as he does not move 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 his whole defence; for on the first hostile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with disgusting howlings, so that his pursuer flies much more speedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrible noise. When this animal finds no wild fruit on the ground, he eagerly looks out 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 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 are very numerous; twenty or thirty, in company, ramble over the woods, leaping from tree to tree; and, if they meet with a single person, they chatter and make a frightful noise, throwing things at him; they hang themselves by the tail, on the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes; but they usually scamper away where two or three people are together.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The water-fall of Tequendama is reckoned among the wonders of America. The river Bogota, after winding through a plain with a breadth of 140 feet, contracts itself, on reaching a perpendicular rock, into a bed only 40 feet wide, and precipitates itself, at two bounds, to the depth of 650 feet. "This overwhelming body of water (says an observer of the phenomenon), when it first parts from its bed, forms a broad arch of a glossy appearance; lower down, it assumes a fleecy form, and ultimately, in its downward progress, shoots forth into millions of tubular shapes, which seem to chase each other like sky-rockets. The changes are as beautiful as they are varied, from the difference of gravitation, and the rapid evaporation that takes place before reaching the bottom. The noise with which this immense body of water falls is quite astounding; it sends up dense clouds of vapor, which rise to a considerable height, and mingle with the atmosphere, forming in their ascent the most brilliant rain-bows. The most conclusive proof

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of the extraordinary evaporation is the comparatively small stream which runs off from the foot of the fall. To exemplify its tremendous force, it is asserted that experiments have been made by forcing a bullock into the stream, and that no vestige of him has been found at the bottom but a few of his bones. To enhance the effect, nature seems to have lavished all the grand accompaniments of scenery: and from the rocky sides of the immense basin, hung with shrubs and bushes, numerous springs and tributary streams arise. At the bottom the water that runs off rushes impetuously along a stony bed, overhung with trees, and loses itself in a dark winding of the rock. From the level of the river, where you stand to witness this sublime scene, the mountains rise to a great height, and are completely covered with wood; and at one opening is an extensive prospect, which, on a clear day, encompasses some distant snow-covered mountains in the province of Antioquia."

Another curiosity is the natural bridge of Icononzo. A torrent is crossed, at the height of 300 feet above its level, by a rocky arch about 46 feet long and 35 broad; and this arch is 2850 feet above the sea. About 60 feet below this bridge is another, formed by the fall and mutual adhesion of three huge masses of rock.

CHIEF TOWNS, POPULATION, MANNERS.] The city of Santa Fè de Bogota was for some centuries the capital of New-Granada, and the residence of the Spanish vice-roy. It is now the seat of government for the new republic; and M. Mollien represents it as the most agreeable town in the whole state, adding that Carthagená is the best-fortified, Popayan the best-built, Guayaquil the richest, Zipaquira the most lively, Maracaybo the best-situated, and Quito the most populous. Bogota stands on an elevated plain, 8500 feet above the sea. It is not more than a mile in length, and its widest part is only half a mile in breadth. Most of the streets are narrow, but regular; the houses are low, in consequence of the apprehension of earthquakes; and they are neither very commodious, nor well-furnished. The town is generally in a dirty state, having no drains, and not being provided with scavengers. One of the vice-roys said, that it had four kinds of police-officers to keep it clean,—namely, the vultures, the asses, the pigs, and the rain; but, instead of contenting himself with mere pleasantries, he ought to have made effectual regulations for the purification of the place. The house of the president, and the buildings in which the two branches of the legislature meet, are unworthy of the dignity of the republic; but many of the churches are stately and rich, and some of the monasteries are well-built and amply endowed. That they will long flourish in the latter respect, cannot be expected, as the smaller foundations of that kind have been lately suppressed. There are three well-conducted colleges, in which theology, natural and moral philosophy, mathematics, and philology, are taught both by ecclesiastics and laymen. A school of mineralogy has been recently formed, and schools have been established on Mr. Lancaster's plan.—The population of this city is supposed to amount to 33,000; and, as it stands between ridges of mountains, though at a considerable distance from each range, the climate has an agreeable temperature.

Carthagená has a fine harbour, though the entrance is difficult. This town suffered great injury in the late revolutionary contest, and, though it still has a considerable trade, evidently declines in population and importance. The fortifications give the place an imposing air, but, in all probability, would not long withstand the assaults of a British armament. The streets are narrow and dark, the houses ill-furnished and dirty; and no town in Colombia is more unhealthy, or more infested by venomous

insects. The male inhabitants are thus characterised by M. Mollien :— "they are ingenious jewel-workers, good carpenters, indifferent joiners, unskilful masons, excellent shoe-makers, tolerable tailors, bad painters."

Quito is situated in a ravine, between the mountain Pichincha and a range of smaller hills. It is a flourishing town, distinguished by the benign temperature of the air, the civilisation of the inhabitants, and the elegance of its public buildings. It had two famous universities, which were united by Charles III. From this city many volcanic mountains may be seen; and the earthquake of the year 1797, produced by the eruptions of one of these, will not soon be forgotten. No great damage, indeed, was then sustained at Quito; but many parts of the country, more particularly the province of Riobamba, severely suffered by this dreadful calamity.

The city of Caracas was flourishing beyond most of the Colombian towns, and had at least a population of 40,000, when an earthquake blasted the hopes of a continuance of its prosperity. During five months before the 26th of March, 1812, not a drop of rain had fallen in the whole province; that day was remarkably hot, the air calm, the sky unclouded; and, as it was Holy-Thurs day, the churches were filled. A sudden shock made the bells toll; the ground undulated, and seemed to heave up like a boiling liquid. A subterranean noise, louder than ordinary thunder, was soon after heard; perpendicular and undulatory movements crossed each other; the shocks increased, the greater part of the town was overthrown, and 9000 persons were buried under the ruins of the churches and houses. The revolutionary war, and the emigration of multitudes, subsequently thinned the population, so that it is now under 20,000; and, for the space of a mile, the town exhibits heaps of ruins, and streets uninhabited, and overgrown with weeds.

The whole Colombian state is supposed to have about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Europeans and Creoles, perhaps, form a seventh part of this number; the Mestizoes, a fourth part; the Mulattoes and other mixed people, a third; the descendants of the old inhabitants, and the negroes, make up the rest.

As the characters of the citizens and provincials do not appear to be very different from those of the Mexican population, and as even the variations which the visitants of the two countries pretend to have observed are not stated with due precision, we shall content ourselves with offering a few hints on the subject. The people of the higher class in the capital are fond of pleasure and gaiety, of bull-baiting, cock-fights, theatrical amusements, and gambling; and the ladies are as fond of *tertulias*, halls, and masquerades, as they are of religious processions. An anonymous writer says, "Bogota is the most justly-celebrated place in the whole republic for beautiful women;" but captain Cochrane says, that the majority of the females are by no means handsome. They are very amorous, and, being left at full liberty, go about intriguing, with their faces muffled up, as if they were the most pure and modest of all beings. But, if the ladies of the metropolis are thus licentious, the women in all other great towns do not follow the example; for Mr. Stevenson informs us, that the "private characters of the ladies of Guayaquil are as free from levity as their public demeanor is from prudery," and at Cumana, we believe, and also at Quito, chastity and decorum are far more prevalent than in the capital. With regard to the inferior parts of the population in the last-mentioned city, it appears that the mestizoes "partake of the virtues of the whites, but exceed them in their vices, and are equally void of fixed determination," and that the people of the old race, when employed as domestics, are

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patient, obedient, and industrious, but, when they act for themselves, are remarkably indolent, and prone to excess in drinking.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In 1811, a constitution was framed for the new government of Venezuela; but it was rendered nugatory by the unavoidable embarrassments and misfortunes of the insurgents, and, when Bolivar had subsequently met with important success, a species of dictatorship was conferred upon him. He afterwards resigned a great part of this temporary authority, when a provisional government had been formed at Angostura. In 1821, the new rulers made Cucuta the seat of their power, and, by a fundamental law, confirmed in the strongest terms those resolutions of independence which had been already adopted. They prepared a constitutional code resembling that of the United States of North-America, but gave it, in one respect, too much of an aristocratic form, by unwarrantable restrictions of the elective privilege. They thought perhaps, that the people, having recently emerged from slavery, were not yet fit to be intrusted with power, and therefore made such enactments as seemed, to the enlightened part of the population, to be inconsistent with the grand object at which all parties aimed. Hence it was shrewdly and indignantly remarked by some of the citizens, "*Somos independientes, pero no somos libres*,"—We are independent, but not free.—It is evident, however, that the new *regime* is far preferable, with all its imperfections, to the old colonial system.

Of the twelve departments, each sends four members to the senate or upper house, and the popular representatives are, at present, about one hundred. One legislative session must be holden in every year, and each member receives nine dollars *per diem* for his services, beside an allowance for the expense of traveling from the place of his residence to the capital. The president of the republic receives thirty thousand dollars *per annum*;—a sum which many will deem inadequate to the dignity and labors of his office.

HISTORY.] It has been said, that the independence of a large colony is innate; that it arises from the natural order of things, and is the necessary consequence of the attainment of a certain degree of maturity. This was the state of the Spanish colonies, when their royal master became, from captivity, unable either to protect or oppress them.

After the discovery of the territory of Cumana, in the third voyage of Columbus, the northern part of South-America long remained unexplored, or at least uncolonised; but, in 1536, Sebastian de Benalcazar and Gonzalo de Quesada took possession of the country about the lake of Maracaybo, and the settlements were at length extended to the Amazon river and the borders of Peru. The whole colony remained for ages under the Spanish yoke, which the people, however discontented many of them might be, did not seriously endeavour to shake off before the present century. Miranda, a native of Caracas, projected a scheme of revolt, which, he hoped, might be as successful as that of the British colonies in North-America; and, when he had landed, with a small party of colonial exiles, on the coast of Coro, he endeavoured to rouse the provincials to action; but the attempt rather exposed him to ridicule than the government to danger. After the invasion of Spain by the French, the colonists remained quiet until they were insulted by the *cortès*; and then they organised a republican government, in 1811, under the appellation of the Confederate Provinces of Venezuela. But when the effects of that earthquake which destroyed the greater part of the city of Caracas had cooled the ardor of the people, who thought that this disaster was a proof of the indignation of Heaven at their conduct, the progress of the revolution was

arrested, and the royalists recovered their sway. Miranda was sent off to Cadiz, (where he died in confinement) while Bolivar, one of his bravest officers, escaped. As this was only a suspension, not an extinction, of the popular spirit, Bolivar, having procured a military force from the zeal of a congress which had been formed in the territory of New-Granada, boldly re-erected, in 1813, the revolutionary standard. After several indecisive conflicts, he was invested with the chief command of all the forces of Venezuela; but, being twice defeated with great loss, he retreated from the scene of hostility.

When Ferdinand was restored to his throne, he endeavoured to conciliate the revolters; but, as he merely promised an amnesty, without entertaining the least thought of placing them on a par with native Spaniards, they resolved to oppose him with redoubled energy. To Morillo he principally trusted for the re-establishment of his authority; and, if cruelty could have achieved that object, the choice was such as a tyrant's friends might be disposed to approve. The new general took Carthagena, marked his route to Santa-Fé with slaughter and devastation, and restored the royal authority in New-Granada. He then harassed the republicans in Venezuela, until he was brought to a general engagement by Bolivar, on the 7th of August, 1819, at Boyaca, where his troops were totally routed. On this occasion, a battalion of British subjects fought with such courage and alacrity, as to entitle themselves to the gratitude of all the votaries of independence. The royalists being still unsubdued, Bolivar again encountered them, and was again most usefully aided by his British associates. He proved victorious in the field of Carabobo, in 1821, and the cause which he supported was then pronounced to be triumphant. To the new republic the territory of Quito was added, in 1822, in consequence of the battle of Pichincha, and the whole country that was rescued from the Spanish yoke received, for an obvious reason, the appellation of *Colombia*. In defiance of the remonstrances of Ferdinand, it was acknowledged as an independent state by Great Britain, and the commerce which had been allowed to that nation during the long contest was sanctioned and extended by a regular commercial treaty.

PERU.

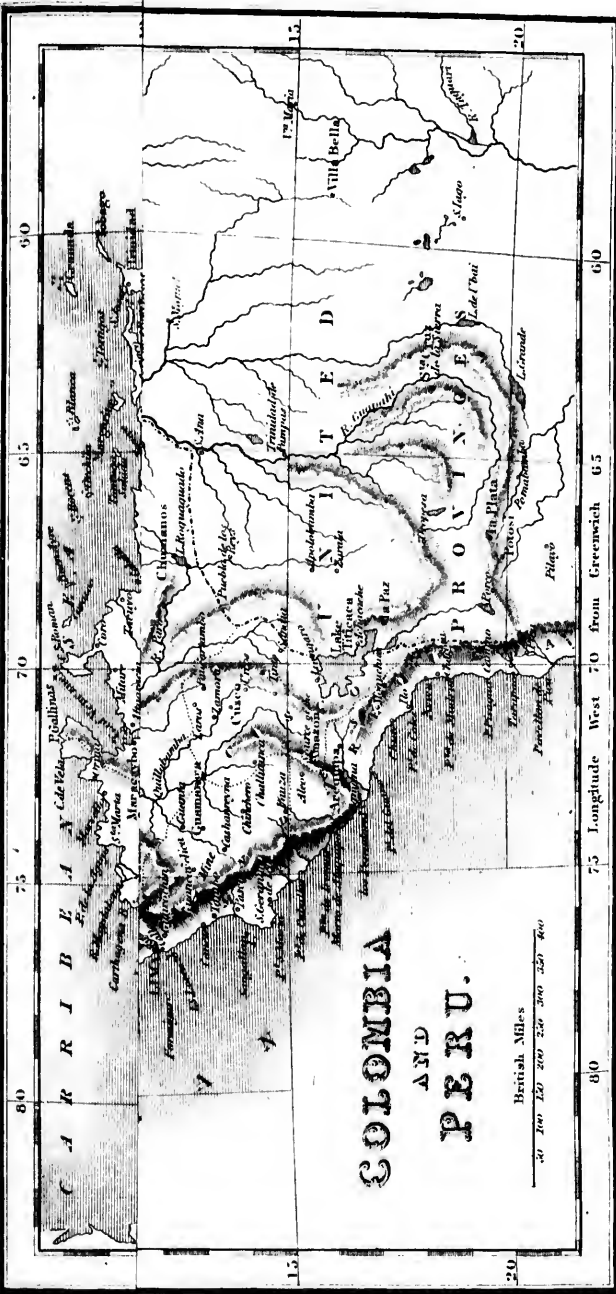
SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1400 } Breadth 450 }	between { 3 and 25 South latitude. } 72 and 81 West longitude. }	675,000.

BOUNDARIES.] Peru is bounded by the Pacific on the west, by Chile and the same ocean on the south, by the Colombian territories on the north, and on the east by Amazonia and the territory of La Plata. The country is not sufficiently settled to allow a precise statement of its divisions. Upper Peru appears to have disjoined itself from the first revolutionary confederacy; but it is hoped that this impolitic separation of interest will not be confirmed.

MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS.] The Andes partly belong to this state;

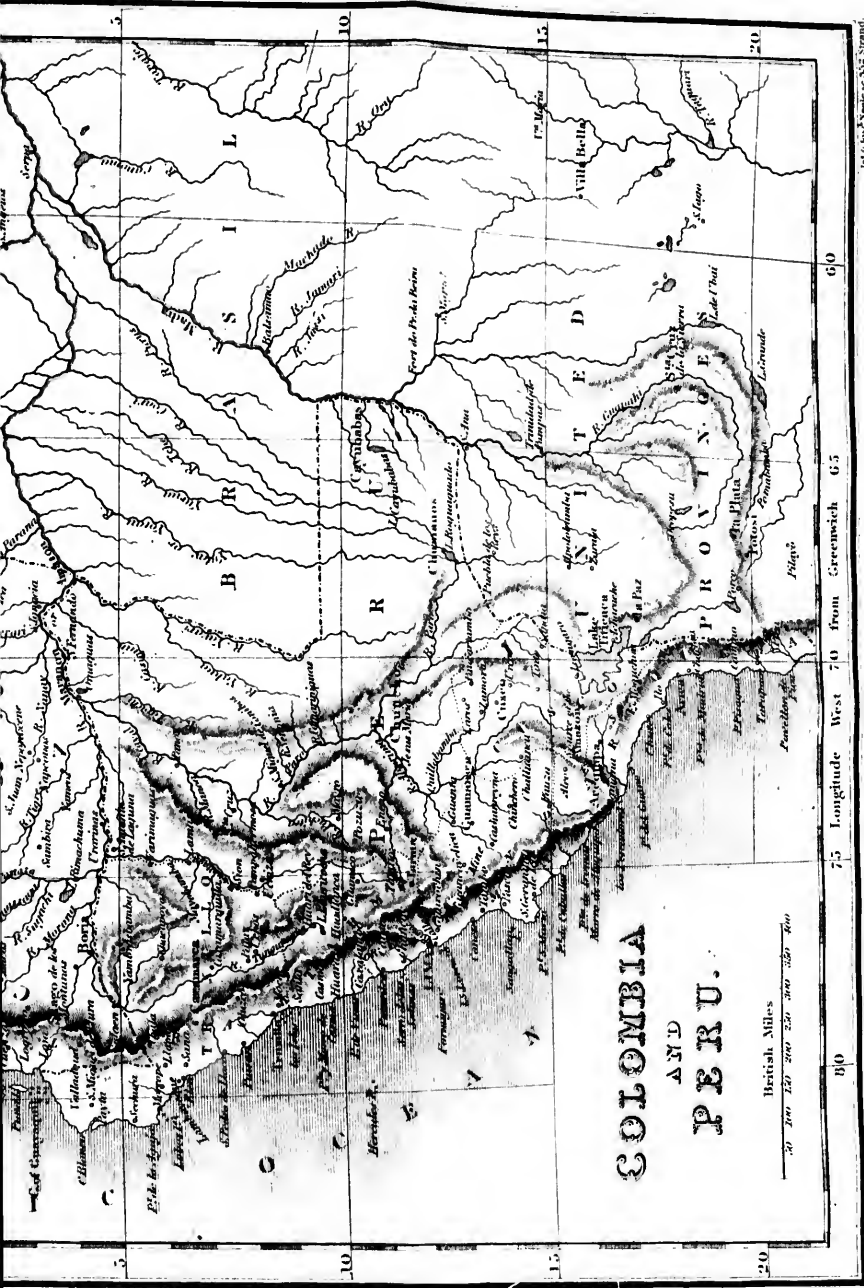




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but that portion of the chain which appears in Peru has no elevation equal to Chimborazo. In the Andes rise many rivers; and Peru claims the source of that noble stream, to which a Spanish officer, merely from seeing a few armed women on its banks, absurdly gave the appellation of the river of the Amazons. It is formed by two large rivers—the Tunguragua (which issues from the lake Lauricocha) and the Ucayal. It receives, in its sinuous course, more than 150 tributary streams, and, after a progress of above 3,500 miles, falls into the Atlantic by a great number of channels. It has been navigated to its confluence with the Pachitea, between eight and nine degrees of southern latitude, where its current is gentle; and by the Rio Negro, one of its branches, it communicates with the Cassiquiari, which runs into the Orinoco. Its waters abound with alligators, and its banks, in many places, are covered with woods, the haunts of wild beasts.—Of the streams which flow into the river of Amazons, the principal is that which is called *Madera* from the abundance of wood on its banks, and is composed of several rivers issuing from the eastern slope of the Andes on the borders of Peru.

METALS, MINERALS.] There are mines of gold in different parts: silver too is found in abundance in various provinces; and, as the old mines decay, new ones are opened. Peru also produces quicksilver; an article which will appear to be of immense value, if we consider the various purposes to which it is applied, and especially the purification of gold and silver. A very productive mine of this semi-metal is at Guancavelica, where it is found in a whitish mass, resembling bricks ill-burned. The substance is volatilised 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, and forms a pure heavy liquid. In Peru likewise is found the remarkable substance called *platina*, which may be considered as an eighth metal, and may almost vie with gold itself.

The chief mineral wealth of Peru is in the mountains which surround Pasco. Silver is often found almost pure in this favored spot, which also affords copper, iron, and tin; and there are mines of gold about five leagues from the town. Excellent coal may be found in the same neighbourhood; and this is a great advantage when steam-engines are employed in the operations of mining. To the working of the silver mines a stop was put some years ago by a royalist general, who destroyed the expensive machinery, because it belonged to a friend of the popular cause; but, after the liberation of the country from despotism, the concern devolved to British capitalists.

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 it scarcely ever rains in Lower Peru; but this defect is sufficiently supplied by a soft dew which falls gradually every night on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grass, as to occasion, in many places, the greatest fertility. Along the coast is generally a dry, barren sand, except by the banks of rivers, where the soil is very fertile, as are all the low grounds in the inland parts. This country produces fruits peculiar to the climate, beside most of those which thrive in Europe. The culture of maize, of pimento, and cotton, which the Spaniards found already established, has not been neglected; and wheat, barley, cassava, potatoes, sugar, as also the olive and vine, receive due attention. The algarroba, or carob-tree, is found particularly useful: its pods, containing seeds like beans, furnish goats with salutary food; afford, by infusion and fermentation, a palatable liquor;

and, when pounded, supply the common people with tolerable cakes. An important article in the commerce of this country is the Peruvian bark. The trees which produce it grow in the mountainous parts of Peru. The best bark is always found in the high and rocky grounds; the tree which bears it is about the size of a cherry-tree, and has a kind of fruit resembling the almond: but it is only the bark that has those excellent qualities which render it so useful in intermitting fevers, and other disorders to which daily experience extends the application of it.

ANIMALS.] The principal animals peculiar to Peru are the lama, vicuna, and 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. 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 burthen. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the steepest mountains with a great burthen. It feeds very sparingly, and rarely drinks. The vicuna is smaller and swifter than the lama, and produces wool still finer in quality. In the vicuna is found the bezoar, regarded as a specific against poison. The guanaco is much larger than the lama, and its wool is long and harsh; but in shape they are nearly alike.

Among the feathered part of the creation in Peru, the condor is most conspicuous. The flight of this bird is majestic: it rises with an almost imperceptible tremulous motion of the wings, and descends in the same manner: it pounces on its prey, and bears it off to a neighbouring hill: if the lamb or other animal be too large, the bird will feed on it until it is unable to fly; the villagers then hunt it, and kill it with clubs.

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 purposes.

ANTIQUITIES.] About fifteen miles from Caxamarca are the remains of an old town, built long before the conquest of the country. Many of the houses are yet entire. They are constructed of stone; some consist of seven tiers of rooms; and on the summit of a rocky hill are curious ruins, apparently of a palace or fortress. The extraction of such masses of stone from the quarries without machinery, and the shaping of them without iron tools, argued some degree of skill and contrivance in the builders.

Near Patavilca, ruins are visible to a great extent, supposed to have been the fortified palace of one of the royal vassals of the Inca. The chief building stood on an eminence, and the walls were continued to the foot of it, like regular circumvallations.

CHIEF TOWNS, POPULATION, MANNERS.] The situation of Lima, in the midst 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. The town was flourishing, as far as Spanish despotism would allow, when a most tremendous earthquake, in 1746, laid three-fourths of it level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port belonging to it. It is said, that, out of three thousand inhabitants of Callao, only one was left to record this dreadful calamity, and he escaped by a providence the most extraordinary. This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived the people running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as usual on such

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occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, and buried the inhabitants in its dark bosom. Immediately all was silent; but the same wave which destroyed the town, drove a boat to the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself.

"The streets of Lima (says Mr. Caldcleugh) are all built at right angles; they are formed of small rounded stones, washed down from the mountains; all those in the direction of east and west have a small stream of water running down them, and the Rimac, a mountain torrent, which flows to the sea, passes through a part of the town. The great square, which is said to be five hundred feet above the sea, is built on two sides with shops and stalls. The seat of justice occupies another side,—a building very much in the Chinese style; and in front of it is the cathedral, a very handsome pile. The riches which have been lavished at various times upon the interior of this edifice are scarcely to be credited any where but in a city which once paved a street with ingots of silver to do honor to a new viceroy. The balustrades surrounding the great altar, and the pipes of the organ, are of silver. It may be mentioned, as a proof of the abundance of silver ornaments, that different articles of that metal, weighing a ton and a half, have been taken from the various churches, without being missed, to meet the exigencies of the state. The church of San-Pedro is remarkable for its architecture, and a small church built by Pizarro, which has never been totally ruined by the earthquakes, is visited by all strangers. The monastic establishments are very numerous, and of great extent and splendor. The Franciscan convent, which is said to cover an eighth part of the city, seems to form a small town within itself. The other public buildings most worthy of notice are the palace of the archbishop, the mint, the palace of the inquisition (when it existed in Peru), and a noble establishment for retired secular clergymen. The Jesuits' college is converted into a foundling hospital. The bridge over the Remac has nothing to recommend it; but, on the right bank of the river, the late viceroy, Amat, laid out large sums in forming a public walk, at the termination of which the bull-ring is seen. Another object to which strangers are directed is the Pantheon, or a burial-place for a part of the city, surrounded and divided by a wall with niches for the reception of the dead. Many years ago, a municipal order was published to prevent the towers of the churches from being constructed of any other materials than wood and painted canvas. This was with a view of obviating the horrors which occurred during earthquakes, from the flight of the people to the churches; but latterly they have been built of clay, which in time takes the hardness of stone. For the same reason the majority of the houses have only a ground-floor; and, when they have an upper floor, an overhanging wooden balcony is attached to the windows: they are all constructed of unburned bricks, with a court and garden in the rear. The walls of the court and gate-way are covered with fresco paintings; and, when there is a dead wall in the front of the house of any respectable person, it is decorated in the same way. The rooms are gaudily adorned, and the floors are generally tiled; an *estrada*, or long narrow sofa, fills up one side, and a piece of carpet covers that portion of the room. The roofs of all the houses are perfectly flat, and, in general, are merely composed of lath and plaster."

The university of Lima ought not to pass without notice. Some eminent characters have issued from it, whose portraits adorn the walls of the great hall. The building is handsome, the room for disputation has

a dignified and academical air, and the library is well furnished with the means of instruction; but it is said that the professors neglect their duties. The young men have better opportunities of improvement at some of those seminaries which are ostensibly inferior; and there are useful schools annexed to the monasteries.

The population of the city is calculated at 75,000. The Creoles, who, with the Europeans, compose less than a fourth part of that number, are careless, volatile, improvident, fond of variety, and prone to dissipation; but good-natured, generous, and friendly. The gentlemen now imitate the English modes of dress, and the ladies also generally follow that example; but the latter have a peculiar walking-dress, for they wear a petticoat of velvet, satin, or stuff, which, though rather elastic, sits close to the body, and distinctly shows the shape: with this they wear a short cloke of thin silk, which is drawn round the waist, and over the breast and the head, so as to conceal nearly the whole of the face. With regard to the rest of the population, we may observe, that the mestizoes are kind, well-meaning, and disposed to make themselves useful to the whites; that the mulattoes have lively imaginations, and are very loquacious; that many of them are intelligent and well-informed, able managers of great domestic establishments, and so faithful that implicit confidence is reposed in them by their employers. The descendants of the old Peruvians are capable of great labor without the zeal of true diligence, and submissive to the whites, without being attached to them. Their characters have been deteriorated by the depressed state in which they were kept for ages: but they are far more respectable than the Chinoes, the mingled offspring of their own race and the negroes.

Mr. Caldeleugh thus speaks of the state of society at Lima.—“The figures of the ladies boast that rich fullness of person which is the truest symptom of health in a warm country. Their manners are extremely agreeable, and they are as kind and attentive to foreigners as the Spanish women every-where show themselves. In their persons they are very cleanly (taking the cold bath several times a day), although it must be stated that they smoke a little, and occasionally take snuff. They get rid of the unpleasantness which attends the former operation by chewing paper. It is not unusual for them to smoke a little at the theatre; but they always choose small cigars, and, placing their fans before them, retire to the back of the box. This custom may therefore be considered on the wane: it proceeds in a great measure from the almost constant fogs which prevail in Lima, and from an idea, not without foundation, that it prevents attacks of the stomach. The habits of the people have generally a tropical turn in every thing. Dances are not so common as in Chile, nor any of those games so prevalent in that country. Cards, chess, and music, which require little exertion, and sitting tranquil at the bull-ring, are the more usual enjoyments of Lima. Persons of rank rise early, and their servants bring them directly a light breakfast of chocolate and fruit; sometimes, it must be confessed, stewed meat is added. Dinner takes place about two o'clock, and consists of excellent fish, and meat dressed in a variety of ways, and highly seasoned. The wine is either Peruvian or European. The siesta follows until six o'clock, and about nine a cup of chocolate forms the supper. At evening-parties, which are of constant occurrence, punch is the more usual beverage.”

Cusco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, is supposed to have been founded in 1043. On a hill to the north of the city, are still seen the ruins of a fortress, built of stone by one of the incas, with some degree of skill. The houses in general are constructed of the same mate-

rial, and are rich; and the town is one of the old manufacture of cloth some of their

Truxillo was but the houses very dirty state bishop's palace. The people to be free from such persons v

Caxamarca for their work in a fertile v innocent amuse

Lambayeque both ingenious distant traders counterpanes, t

COMMERCE highly favored deed, it is now parts, and will might be more quantity of flax nuts and coffee to afford copious and cotton goods middle classes articles of that

HISTORY.] find it a very a nited race, in s found sufficient riority, treated checked their a government proceeds in an exhibited a clo derived his de standard of rev years; and the rebel chief was death. From t was disordered roy of Peru th which animated chastise and rec tion broke o the royalists ros from Chile. A Callao, as the among that par

rial, and are of fine proportions. The cathedral is large, handsome, and rich; and the other public buildings have an air of dignity and splendor. The town is occupied by 25,500 persons, of whom the majority sprang from the old race. These are very industrious and skilful in the manufacture of cloth and other articles; and many of them excel in painting, some of their productions being admired even in Italy.

Truxillo was founded by Pizarro. It is neatly and regularly built; but the houses are low, and the streets, being unpaved, are generally in a very dirty state. The cathedral is handsome, and opposite to it is the bishop's palace, which is fitted up in a curious style of antique magnificence. The population is about 8500, and the colored part of it is said to be free from those stains which frequently render the complexions of such persons very disagreeable.

Caxamarca contains about 7000 inhabitants, many of whom are famous for their workmanship in silver and iron. The town is pleasantly situated in a fertile valley; the climate is fine; and kindness, hospitality, and innocent amusements, characterise the citizens.

Lambayeque is a place of considerable trade. The inhabitants are both ingenious and industrious. They supply their neighbours, and also distant traders, with excellent leather made from the skins of goats, counterpanes, table-cloths, sail-cloth, and rush-hats.

COMMERCE.] Under proper regulations, the trade of a country so highly favored by nature would be prosperous and lucrative; and, indeed, it is now increasing. The cotton plant grows spontaneously in some parts, and will soon furnish a valuable article of exportation. Wool might be more liberally exported than it now is; and a much greater quantity of flax might be raised with little difficulty. The chocolate-nuts and coffee-berries are chiefly used at home, when it would be easy to afford copious supplies to other nations or communities. Coarse linen and cotton goods are manufactured in Peru; but, as the higher and middle classes in the towns are very fond of dress, they receive all fine articles of that description from Europe.

HISTORY.] When the Spaniards had subdued Peru, they did not find it a very arduous task to keep the natives, who were not a very spirited race, in strict subjection. A small military force was generally found sufficient for that purpose. The colonists, proud of their superiority, treated the conquered tribes with contempt, and studiously checked their advancement in the scale of dignity. The progress of such a government furnishes few incidents to the historian, as every thing proceeds in an uniform tenor. At length, however, the horizon of Peru exhibited a cloudy aspect. In 1781, Rupac Amaro, pretending that he derived his descent from the incas, erected upon the mountains the standard of revolt. The civil war which thus arose continued for two years; and then, after having reduced many considerable districts, the rebel chief was taken with his family, and punished with torture and with death. From that time, the country remained undisturbed, until Spain was disordered and convulsed by the ambition of Bonaparté. The viceroys of Peru then exerted all his influence to check that zeal for liberty which animated the generality of the Creoles, and even sent troops to chastise and reclaim the revolvers of Chilé. In the mean time, an insurrection broke out at Cusco, but it was soon quelled. The arrogance of the royalists rose or fell according to the intelligence which was received from Chilé. At length, in 1820, the appearance of lord Cochrane, near Callao, as the commander of a Chilean fleet, diffused a great alarm among that party at Lima, and his operations on the coast of Peru were

so spirited, that the advocates for a revolution conceived strong hopes of success. The viceroy Pesuela was compelled to relinquish his authority; but the troops that enforced his resignation were so far from being inclined to join the popular party, that they nominated a new governor, whom they deemed better qualified for maintaining the interest of Spain. San-Martin, the commander of the Chilean army, now prepared (to use his own expressions) to "break those chains which Pizarro, 300 years before, had forged with his blood-stained hands." Having defeated a strong division of the royal troops, the Chileans desisted from hostility, leaving the citizens of Lima at leisure to organise a new government. This measure was carried into effect in July, 1821. Peru was declared to be free from the Spanish yoke, and entirely independent; but a considerable time elapsed before a regular administration was formed. In the mean time, San-Martin acted as protector of the new state, while the royalists retained possession of Callao and some other stations. In 1822, the protector and the council of state ordered, that deputies should be elected for the purpose of framing a constitution. The war being still continued, the Chilean troops were attacked by the enemies of freedom, and much loss was sustained. The people were now discontented; and, as Monteagudo, a minister employed by San-Martin, had conducted himself in a very impolitic and arbitrary manner, the municipality sent him into exile. The constituent congress, however, complimented the protector with a vote of thanks, and he returned into Chile, while lord Cochrane, who was honored in a similar mode, embarked for Brazil, being invited to command the navy of that empire. Dissensions having arisen between the congress and the republican army, the people loudly called for unanimity, without which they despaired of the success of their cause. In the next campaign, the royalists were at first victorious, but were afterwards defeated by general Sucre. While it was yet doubtful on which side the scale would preponderate, Bolivar made his appearance at Lima, and was invested *pro tempore* with the chief power; and troops arrived both from Colombia and Chile. The immediate operations, however, were not decisive; for the royalists maintained their ground with spirit. Near the close of the year 1824, the contending parties seemed determined to bring the contest to a close. Sucre, having taken a position in the plain of Ayacucho, was attacked by La-Cerna; and, though he had an inferior force, with only one piece of artillery, he triumphed with little difficulty over the too-confident enemy. The result of the battle was a capitulation, importing that the royalist soldiers should be conveyed to Spain at the expense of the Peruvian state; that all prisoners should be set at liberty, and that no one should be called to account for his former opinions, or for his zeal in the royal cause. The port and fortress of Callao still remained in the hands of the king's adherents; but the leaders of the congress now acted as if the whole state had been under their authority. That strong-hold was at length reduced in 1826; the republic was then more regularly organised, and the good effects of a representative and constitutional government were felt by all classes of society.

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ANIMALS,]
resembles the hippopotamus. A lion is seen upon a man.

CHILE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	1200	between { 25 and 43 South latitude. 70 and 75 West longitude. }	} 280,000.
Breadth	230		

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Peru on the north, by La Plata to the east, by Patagonia on the south, and by the Pacific Ocean on the west.

RIVERS, LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Salado, or Salt River, the Guasco, Coquimbo, Chiapa, Biobio, and the Valdivia, all scarcely navigable but at their mouths.

The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua and Paren; beside which, there are some salt-water lakes, that have a communication with the sea for a 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.] Gold, silver, copper, tin, quicksilver, iron, and lead, abound in this country. The richest silver mine is that which extends to the plain of Uspallata; the vein, it is said, has been traced to the extraordinary length of ninety miles. In one district, copper is found in a state of combination with zinc, so as to form a natural brass; and Molina supposes that this uncommon mixture is the effect of subterraneous fire. Not only many mines of gold are worked, but great quantities are washed down from the Andes by brooks and torrents. Precious stones, such as the agate, jasper, ruby, and sapphires, are occasionally found, and fine quarries of marble are very common.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The climate is a medium between the intense heat of the torrid and the piercing cold of the frigid zone. From the beginning of the spring to the autumn, there is a constant succession of fine weather; and the rains follow during four months, in the southern parts of the country, but not without intermission. In the northern districts very little rain falls, but the want of it is supplied by the abundance of dew. Thunder is scarcely known, except on the mountains. Slight earthquakes are frequently felt, and more dangerous shocks sometimes occur.

The soil is remarkable for its fertility, which, however, is not equal throughout the country, being more observable at a distance from the sea. In the valleys near the Andes, vegetation is particularly luxuriant and vigorous, and the animals are larger and stronger than in the other parts of Chile. Maize, barley, and other sorts of grain, thrive exceedingly; the sugar-cane is very productive, the vine and the tobacco-plant grow wild, and various species of fruit are abundant and delicious. Extensive forests are spread over the country; plenty of coal is also afforded, and free-stone and lime-stone are found in various parts.

ANIMALS.] In the rivers and lakes there is a quadruped which resembles the hippopotamus of Africa. That animal which most resembles a lion is sufficiently bold to attack a horse, but never ventures to rush upon a man. A species of horse is sometimes seen with cloven feet,

more wild and swift than the vicuna. The tame horses of this country are in high estimation, and prodigious numbers of oxen, goats, and sheep, are fattened in the luxuriant pastures. Turkeys, geese, and all kinds of poultry, are found in the same profusion. The coasts abound with various kinds of excellent fish: there are also many whales and seals.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS.] A North-American envoy or agent, but with evident exaggeration, that the number of the inhabitants of Chile amounted, in 1818, to 1,200,000, exclusive of the unconquered natives. The latter are the Araucans, the descendants of those brave men who scorned submission when liberty could be maintained by arms. Their four territorial divisions are governed by four chieftains, who hold provincial assemblies; but, when affairs of general concern demand attention, a council is convoked, consisting of deputies from each division. They have no written laws; but they have traditional rules for the administration of justice and the protection of property. They practise both agriculture and pasturage, and in all work of the former kind they are greatly assisted by the women, over whom they exercise a high degree of authority. Their complexions are between a red and a brown hue; they are not tall, but robust and well-formed, and have a bold and manly, if not a pleasing aspect. A face nearly round, with scarcely any beard, small and lively eyes, a flattish nose, well-shaped legs, small and flat feet, are the usual appendages to the persons of these barbarians. The men wear a woolen shirt, doublet, tight small-clothes, and a *poncho* or mantle, frequently fringed and ornamented, reaching to the knees. A blue woolen gown without sleeves, a short mantle, a girdle, and a variety of silver ornaments, which even the poorest can obtain, compose the attire of the women. Towns being considered as prisons, their habitations are widely scattered over the country; and, in these, they exercise all the kindness of hospitality. Polygamy being a general custom, the houses are divided into as many rooms as there are wives in the family; and the competition for the husband's favor does not preclude mutual harmony. Feasting is very common, and fermented liquors are too agreeable to the men to allow them to be temperate. Not only when they are intoxicated, but at all other times, they are confident and presumptuous, and disposed to treat persons of a different race or nation with supercilious contempt. They are not destitute of a sense of religion, for they believe in the existence of a Supreme Being, and the immortality of the soul; but they mingle with their creed all the absurdity of superstition, for they attend to dreams and omens, give credit to the secret operations of witchcraft, and fancy that the spirits of the dead visit the living.

Of the Creoles of Chilè Mr. Myers sneeringly says, "Though they may be said to possess in no degree a single virtue, they have the credit of possessing fewer vices than other Creoles: there is a passiveness, an evenness about them approaching to the Chinese, whom they strongly resemble in many respects. Even in their physiognomy they have the broad low forehead and contracted eyes; they have the same cunning, the same egotism, and the same disposition to petty theft. They are remarkable, too, for extreme patience and endurance under privations; they can seldom be moved to passion, and are most provokingly unfeeling." Of their learning or acquired knowledge he speaks with the same contempt.—"Education can scarcely be said to exist among them. In the country parts schools are absolutely unknown, and, even in the capital, instruction is at the lowest ebb.—The egotism and self-conceit of the Chilenos are proportioned to their ignorance, and they pride themselves in not requiring the knowlege

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HISTORY A century, Yupan of Chilè; and i the river Rapel, extended the sw and another por Spanish colony bears his name. which could sav districts; and, avoided complet but they compl

After a long zuela influenced year 1810, to parties had war ducted by don B obtained the cl Rancagua, and

of books; they have indeed scarcely any; nor can they endure the trouble of reading those which they have."—Mr. Stevenson and captain Hall, however, speak of this part of the community in more candid and liberal terms.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Sant-Iago is the seat of the new government, as it was of the old. It is built with great neatness, and the houses, though low, are commodious. Those of the superior inhabitants encompass a square court, and have in the front an ornamented porch, with a stable and coach-house on its two sides. Behind almost every house is a garden, beyond which runs a clear rapid stream. The cathedral, which is a handsome building, was erected by native workmen, under the superintendence of an English architect. The population exceeds 40,000.

Before a late dreadful accident occurred, Valparaiso was partly built on a narrow strip of land, between cliffs and the sea; another part had straggled up the sides and bottoms of the numerous ravines which intersect the hills; and a suburb called the Almond-Grove, larger than the town itself, was spread over a low sandy plain, near a semi-circular bay; and the population seemed to be thriving in apparent ease and comfort, when an earthquake, on the 19th of November, 1823, irreparably damaged a great part of the town: but it is said that, amidst the scene of ruin, few of the inhabitants lost their lives.

The city of Conception is pleasantly situated, and has a tolerable harbour; but, from the effect of revolutionary convulsions, nearly one half of the town is in a ruinous state. Its inhabitants are still friendly and hospitable, lively in their manners, and gay in their apparel.

Valdivia is one of the best ports on the western coast of South-America, and also one of the strongest both by nature and art. The place was taken from the royalists by lord Cochrane, in 1820. The province to which it belongs is chiefly peopled by the old race. Missions are formed, as in California, for the conversion of the tribes to Christianity; but some of the caciques or chieftains refuse to admit into their districts either missionaries or civil officers.

COMMENCE.] The chief trade of Chilè is carried on with Great-Britain, the United States, and the new rulers of Peru and La Plata. The exports, beside gold, silver, and copper, are hemp, cordage, hides, wine, and oil.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] About the middle of the fifteenth century, Yupanqui, emperor of Peru, sent an army to attempt the conquest of Chilè; and it is said that the invaders subdued the country as far as the river Rapel, to the south-west of Sant-Iago. In 1535, Diego Almagro extended the sway of the Spaniards over a considerable part of the country, and another portion was over-run by Pizarro; but the establishment of the Spanish colony was reserved for Valdivia, the founder of that city which bears his name. The Araucans, though they did not act with that energy which could save the whole country from a foreign yoke, retained many districts; and, while they harassed their enemies with desultory warfare, avoided complete subjugation. Their population suffered from hostilities, but they compelled even the Spaniards to respect them.

After a long interval of colonial tranquillity, the example of Venezuela influenced the inhabitants of Chilè. The majority resolved, in the year 1810, to assert their pretensions to independence; and when two parties had warmly contended for the pre-eminence, that which was conducted by don Bernardo O'Higgins, the descendant of an Hibernian family, obtained the chief power. In 1814, the insurgents were defeated at Rancagua, and fled over the Andes in dismay; yet their party conti-

nued to resist the abettors of the old *régime*. On the other hand, the battle of Chacabuco was disastrous to the royalists, but it did not paralyse their efforts; for, in 1818, they gained the advantage in the battle of Talca. Their success, however, on this occasion, had no other effect than that of rousing the leaders of the opposite party to redoubled vigor. San-Martin, who had served with reputation in the army of Old-Spain, strenuously labored to rally the troops, augment their numbers, and improve their discipline, while the citizens of the capital liberally provided the sinews of war. About 7000 men, including the militia, now advanced to the plain of Maypu, where they were met (on the 5th of April) by 5000 regulars under the command of Osorio. When the conflict had continued for a great part of the day, an Irish officer intimated to San-Martin his apprehensions that the famous regiment of Burgos would speedily form a compact square which might eventually be irresistible, and therefore proposed an immediate assault with the cavalry. This advice was readily followed; the royalists were routed with great slaughter; and thus was established the independence of Chilè. From that time, however, some years elapsed before a political settlement was adjusted. A form of government now prevails, resembling that of the United States of North-America. The people, even of the lowest class, have been invested with the rights of men; the property of every one is fully secured by law; justice is more equitably and impartially administered; education is encouraged by the new government, and the moral virtues are placed on a more substantial basis.

UNITED PROVINCES OF THE RIO DE LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1550 } Breadth 900 }	between { 14 and 37 South latitude. { 56 and 70 West longitude. }	700,000.

BOUNDARIES.] This country is bounded by Amazonia on the north, by Brazil on the east, by Patagonia on the south, and by Peru and Chilè on the west.

RIVERS, LAKES.] Not only many small rivers flow through this state, but it is also watered by three principal ones, the Paraguay, Uruguay, and Parana, which, united near the sea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or River of Silver. This stream has a course of about 1700 miles, and is remarkable for its breadth at its mouth. It falls into the South Atlantic, between the capes St. Antony and St. Mary, which are 130 miles apart from each other; and at Monte-Video, a fortified town above 90 miles distant 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 (that of Xarayes) is sometimes 250 miles in length, when the immense plain to the eastward of the Andes has been inundated by the mountain rivulets.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The climate is in some parts extremely hot, in others temperate and pleasant.

The soil is the valuable rich pastures are all the bargain.

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The soil is very fertile, producing cotton in great quantities, tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruit; and in the rich pastures are bred such herds of cattle, that the hides of the beasts are all that is properly bought, the carcases being given into the bargain.

The great plains, or Pampas, between La Plata and the mountains, form a remarkable feature in the face of the country. They extend (says captain Head) about nine hundred miles from east to west, and may be divided (at least, in the lower latitudes) into three regions,—one of clover and thistles, one of long grass without weeds, and one of low trees and shrubs, growing in great order. The second and third divisions have nearly the same appearance throughout the year; but the first region varies with the seasons. In the winter, the clover is rich and strong, and the thistles are thriving: in the spring, the former plants have vanished, and the latter are luxuriantly spreading: early in the summer, the thistles have shot up into a wood, to the height of nine or ten feet, and their stems are so close that they appear like a natural fortification; but, before the end of that season, they fade and wither, and are blown down by the violence of the wind, and clover again covers the earth with verdure. Wild horses, asses, and dogs, abound on these plains, as well as ordinary cattle, and the bulls and horses are caught in a peculiar manner. A kind of rope is made of strips of untanned hide, having a slip-knot at one end, the other extremity being fastened by an eye and button to a ring in a strong surcingle or hide-belt, bound tightly round a tame horse; and the noose is thrown with great dexterity over the wild animal, so that it cannot disentangle itself.

METALS.] The metallic opulence of this country is well known. Mines of gold and silver are numerous; but it appears that few of the former are now worked. Some silver mines in the neighbourhood of Potosi used to yield 35,000 dollars in a week; and these, under the new government, will not long be neglected. The benefit of a mine is open to all who choose to avail themselves of it, on the payment of a certain portion of the produce (usually a fifth part) to the ruling power.

CHIEF TOWNS, POPULATION, MANNERS.] That city which derived, from the supposed excellence of its air, the appellation of Buenos-Ayres, stands on the south-western bank of the Rio de la Plata, the water of which is conveyed into every garden by a kind of sluice made of osiers. That part of the town which the negroes and people of color inhabit, has a dirty and miserable appearance; but the other parts are neatly built, and many of the houses are richly or handsomely furnished. The cathedral and other churches are built of a very white kind of stone found in the neighbourhood, and the interiors are gaudily ornamented. The monastic edifices are neat and commodious, as also are the hospital for foundlings and the asylum for orphans. The town also possesses an university and many public schools, to which great attention is paid by the new government. A well-built town-hall, a fine piazza, and a number of good houses, decorate the great square, in the centre of which is an obelisk, pompously styled the altar of liberty. There is a fortress, which has not an imposing air of defensibility; but, when the British invaders, after having taken the place with ease, were driven from it, the flat-roofed houses served as posts of annoyance. The population of the city is said to be 60,000, and that of the whole state about two millions.

Next in importance to the capital, and much more populous, is the city of Potosi. It was founded in 1545, on the side of a mountain, in a glen formed by a rivulet. The mint was established in 1562, and

has ever since continued to pour forth its stores for the convenience of Europe.

Mendoza, at the foot of the Andes, is a place of increasing trade, though the houses are low and ill-built. There are few places where horses and cattle, and all sorts of provisions, can be procured at so reasonable a rate. The air is generally as dry as that of Buenos-Ayres is damp. "The inhabitants" (says captain Head) "are apparently a very quiet, respectable set of people. The men are dressed in blue or white jackets, without skirts. The women in the day are only seen sitting at their windows in *deshabille*; but in the evening they come upon the Alameda, or public walk, arrayed with much taste, in full dresses and in low gowns, and completely in the costume of London or Paris. The manner in which all the people seem to associate, shows a great deal of good-feeling and fellowship, and I certainly never saw less apparent jealousy in any place."

The inhabitants of Buenos-Ayres compose a motley groupe, of which the most influential part is the Creole population. The Spaniards lost their credit by the unwillingness of most of them to promote the revolution; and those who still remain, are no longer the haughty beings whose arrogance over-awed the community. The Creoles are still fond of pleasure; but they have roused themselves in a great measure from their supineness and indolence, and the mixed races, being taught to believe that they are entitled to some advantages beyond mere protection, assume a higher tone. They have imbibed, from the English and North-Americans, a spirit of improvement, which manifests itself in their altered dress, manners, and modes of life.

Of the various tribes of the old race dispersed over the inland parts of the country, the *nomades* or rovers of the Pampas seem to be the most remarkable. They are beardless, have dark complexions, low broad foreheads, faces rather flat, high cheek-bones, large jaws, and scowling eyes placed widely apart; they are ill-made and rather short, but muscular and strong. The apparel of each sex consists of little more than a poncho doubled about the waist, and kept in its place by a long sash of colored worsted. Both plait their hair in tails, which are variously ornamented by the women, who also wear ear-rings, bracelets, and anclets of tin. When they have chosen a spot for temporary abode, they make tolerable huts with poles and hides. They live in small hordes, each community being under the government of a chieftain. They have a sense of religion, but no forms of worship. When they lose a relative, they burn the flesh, bury the bones, and testify their grief, like the wild Irish, by howling and drinking. Like the gentry of civilised nations, they settle their disputes by duels. They ride (for they rarely walk) to Buenos-Ayres and Mendoza in quest of spirits, dyeing commodities, knives, bits for their horses, &c., for which they give, in exchange, salt, skins, reins, and lassos. At an entertainment given to a numerous party of these barbarians by general San-Martin, he treated them in a way which suited their taste. He ordered a number of mares to be killed; the flesh was served up raw, and the blood mixed with gin; and first the men, and afterwards the women, brutally gorged and intoxicated themselves.

COMMERCE.] The products of Peru and Chili are sent overland to Buenos-Ayres, to be exchanged for the commodities and manufactures of Europe, which are transmitted to that city. They are conveyed in waggons over the spacious plains, and on mules across the Andes. The exports from the Plata are hides, tallow, wool, copper, tin, &c.

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HISTORY, AND GOVERNMENT.] After the failure of an early attempt for the colonisation of this country, don Pedro de Mendoza sailed from Spain with 2650 men, and began to erect a new fabric of colonial power. The invaders gradually extended their possessions, and established their authority amidst the servitude of the harassed natives, whom, with the zeal of devout Christians, they also endeavoured to convert. As the priests made slow progress in the task of conversion, the Jesuits at length took an opportunity of interfering. They represented to the Spanish court, that the ill success of the missionaries might be imputed to the scandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their insolent behaviour caused in the South-Americans. They insinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the Gospel might have been extended into the most unknown parts of America; and that all those countries might be subjected to his catholic majesty, without expense and without force. This remonstrance met with success; the sphere of action was marked out, uncontrolled 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 license from the fathers. They, on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation-tax, in proportion to their flock, and to send a certain number to the king's works, whenever they should be demanded, and the missions should become populous enough to supply them.

On these terms the Jesuits gladly opened their spiritual campaign. They began by collecting about fifty wandering families, whom they persuaded to settle: and they united them into a community. This was the slight foundation upon which they built a superstructure that amazed the world; for, when they had made this beginning, they labored with such indefatigable diligence, and such masterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the most savage tribes, fixed the most rambling, and subdued those to their government who had long disdained to submit to the arms of the Spaniards and the Portuguese. They prevailed upon many thousands to embrace their religion; and these soon influenced others to follow their example, by magnifying the peace and tranquillity which they enjoyed under the direction of the holy 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 natives were instructed in the military art, and could raise 60,000 men well armed: that they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they labored 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 characters of these Jesuits with great severity, accusing them of ambition and 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 natives, to be corrected before them with stripes, and to suffer persons of the highest distinction within their jurisdiction, to kiss the hems of their garments, as the greatest honor. The priests themselves possessed large property; all manufactures were carried on by

their orders, and apparently more for their benefit than for that of the people: the natural produce of the country was put into their hands; and the treasures, annually remitted to the superior of their order, seemed to evince that zeal for religion was not their only motive in forming these missions. In 1757, when a part of the territory was ceded by Spain to the court of Portugal, in exchange for Santo-Sacramento, the Jesuits refused to comply with this arrangement, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own consent, and the natives actually took up arms; but they were easily defeated by an European force. In 1767, the Jesuits were sent out of America, and their late subjects were put upon the same footing with the other inhabitants of the country.

When the desire of independence began to animate the colonists of Venezuela, the flame was quickly communicated to the provincials of the vice-royalty of La Plata. Those who had made a trial of their strength in the expulsion of the British invaders, were induced to believe that they had the power of shaking off the Spanish yoke. In 1810, many of the citizens of Buenos-Ayres prevailed on the viceroy Cisneros to summon a deliberative assembly, and the result was the popular election of an executive body, styled the provisional junta. This measure was strongly opposed by Elio, the governor of Monte-Video, and other Spaniards, as a revolutionary and rebellious act; and an intestine war arose from the zeal of the royalists. A bold adventurer, named Artigas, distinguished himself in several conflicts, in which the insurgents were victorious; and he then invested Monte-Video, which, being taken after a long siege, was dismantled. The Portuguese, by interfering in the war, gained possession of the territory to the north-west of La Plata, between the Uruguay and the Atlantic. After six years of confusion, a declaration of independence was promulgated by a congress of representatives, and two legislative assemblies were constituted on that fundamental principle which recognises the free will of the people as the sole origin of the legitimacy of governments. Useless offices were abolished; the holders of those which were allowed to subsist were rendered completely responsible for their conduct; the judicial system was meliorated; some taxes were repealed, and others diminished; the privilege of primogeniture was annulled, and the practice of enslaving a fellow-creature condemned as a gross violation of justice.

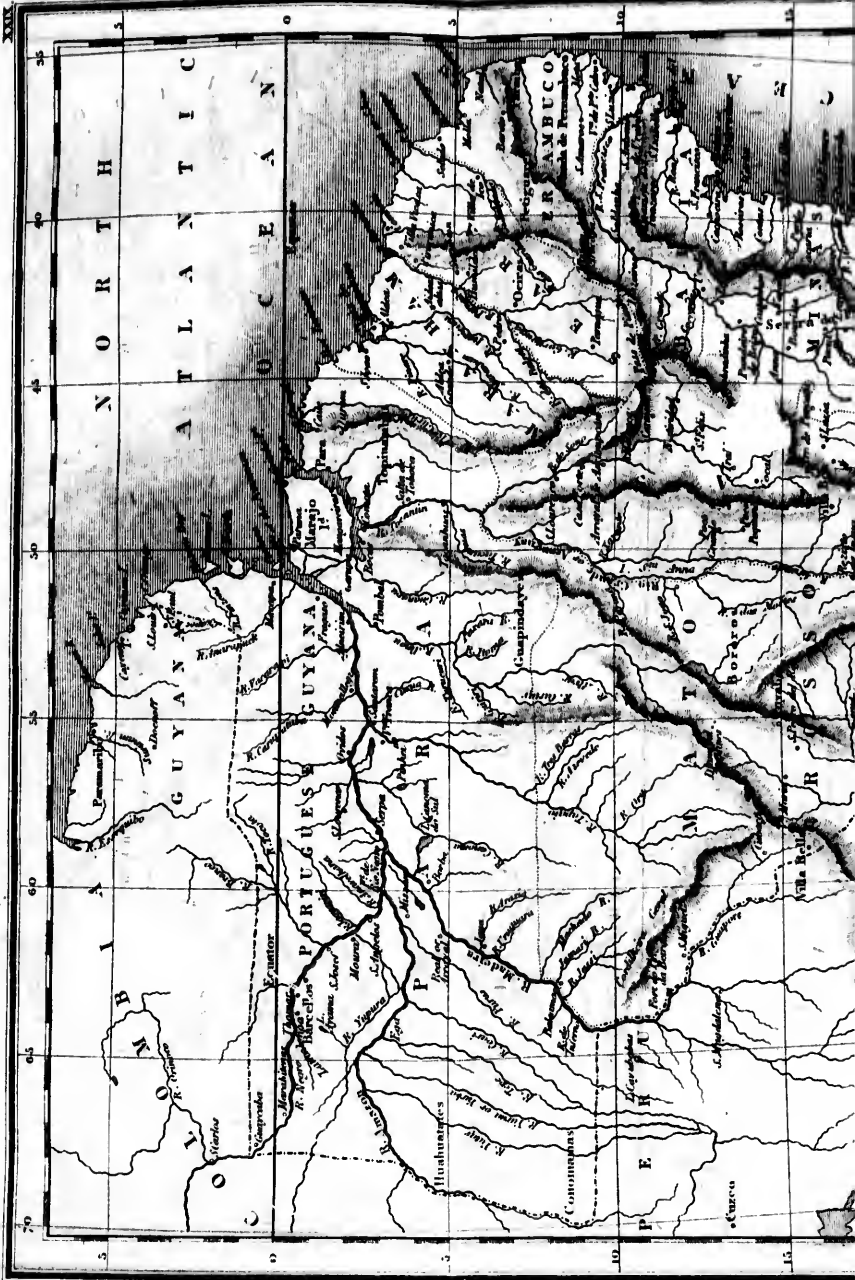
As PATAGONIA is in a great measure dependent on the new state of La Plata, we may, not improperly, here take some notice (though it must be short and imperfect) of that ill-peopled and almost unknown territory.

Pigafetta, who accompanied Magellan in his voyage round the world, asserted that the natives of Patagonia were uncommonly large and tall; and commodore Byron, who landed there in 1764, says, that one who appeared to be a chief "was of a gigantic stature, and seemed to realise the tales of monsters in a human shape:" yet this man was under the height of seven feet, and therefore was not prodigiously tall, though his figure might be more broad and muscular than the general forms of those Europeans who attain the same height. He adds, that the stature of the shortest among 500 of these barbarians did not appear to be less than six feet and a half. They wore skins with the hair inwards, and had no other clothing, except that a few of the number had something like a boot on each leg. The faces of both sexes were streaked with paint of various colors, which gave them an unpleasing appearance. They were

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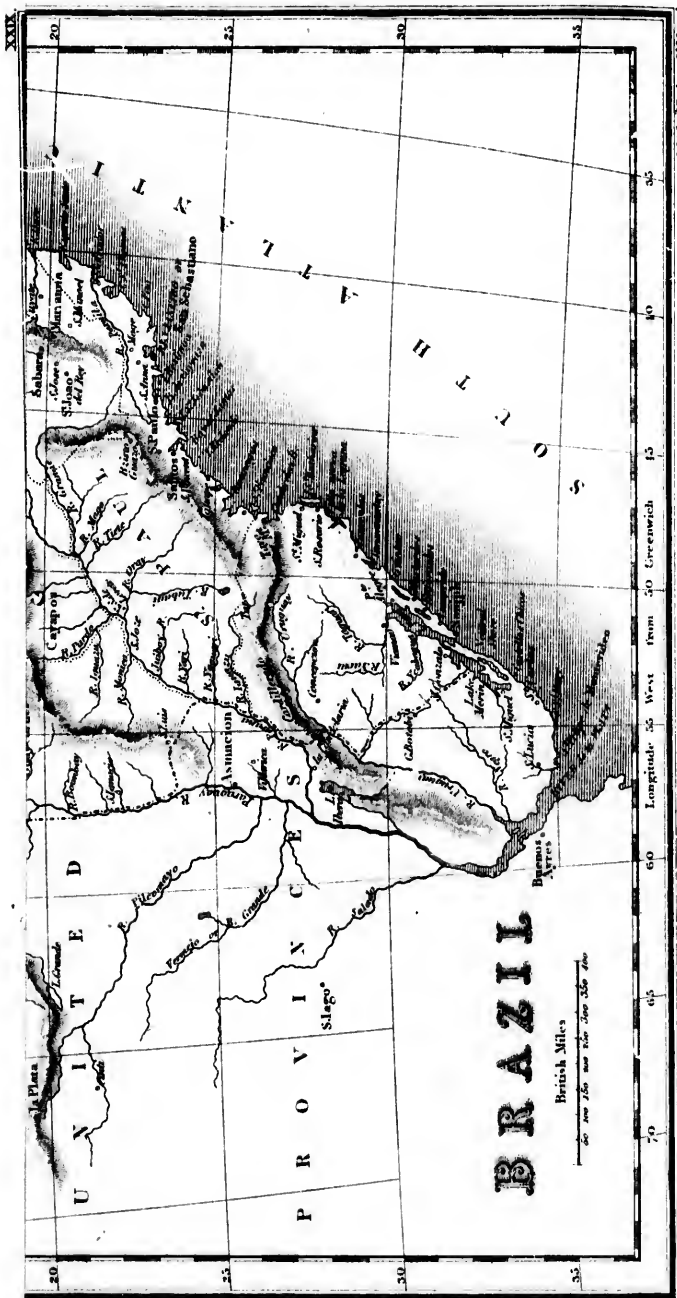
Scale of Statute Miles

BRAZIL

British Miles
 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

Longitude 5 West from 30 Greenwich

London Published May 1854 by J. Newman & the other Proprietors.



London 1850. And Map of 1850 by J. Mannin & the other Publishers.

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mild rather than fierce in their demeanor, and seemed to invite the society of the strangers. They had a great number of horses, which the men managed well, and on which the women rode astride.

More recent observations tend to confirm the account of the general tallness of both sexes in the maritime parts of this country; but the inland districts are occupied by a race similar to the inhabitants of the Pampas. The former are great hunters, and many practise pasturage rather than agriculture, while the latter cultivate the earth, particularly in the fertile spots near the Black River, with advantage and success. Some settlements have been formed in various parts by the rulers of the state of La-Plata; but they are not yet in a flourishing state, though trade is carried on in wool and other commodities. Fisheries are established on the coast, and they have in some seasons been very productive. As the sand-banks abound with sea-elephants of the *phoca* genus, those traders who are desirous of procuring blubber send out boat-men with spears and fire-arms, who make great havoc among those animals. The sea-lions are less molested, because they have very little fat; but the sea-wolves are attacked for the dark-grey fur which they afford.

THE EMPIRE OF BRAZIL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	2150	between { The Equator and 32, S. latitude. 35 and 55, West longitude.
Breadth	1000	

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] Brazil is bounded on the north by the mouth of the Amazon river, and the Atlantic ocean; by the same sea on the east; by the mouth of La-Plata on the south; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of the Amazons, on the west. It is divided into twenty-two provinces, from Solimoens and Para, in the north, to Uruguay in the south.

METALS, MINERALS.] Not only iron, lead, tin, and quicksilver, but even gold and diamonds, are among the products of Brazil. Gold is found either in the channels of rivers or in deep valleys; in some of which, where water appears, frequent excavations occur, made by the gold-washers, sixty or seventy feet wide, and twenty feet deep. At other times, they meet with gold almost immediately under the roots of the grass. It is generally found in a stratum of rounded pebbles and gravel, called *cascahalo*, resting upon the solid rock. At the commencement of the mining system in Brazil, the common method of proceeding was to open a square pit, until the workmen reached the *cascahalo*: this they broke up with pick-axes, and, placing it in a wooden vessel, broad at the top and narrow at the bottom, exposed it to the action of running water, shaking it from side to side, until the earth was washed away, and the metallic particles had all subsided. Lumps of native gold were sometimes found of the weight of seven or eight pounds; but these were insulated pieces, and the ground where they were discovered was not rich. All the first workings were in the beds of rivers, or in the table-grounds on their sides. In 1724, the method of mining was altered. Instead of

opening searching-places by hand, and carrying the *cascalhao* thence to the water, the miners conducted water to the mining ground, and, washing away the mould, broke up the *cascalhao* in pits under a fall of the water, or exposed to the same action in wooden troughs, and thus human labor was greatly diminished. At the beginning of the present century, there was a general complaint in Minas Geraes, that the ground was exhausted of its gold; yet it was the opinion of all scientific men, and still continues to be so, that hitherto little more than the surface of the earth had been scratched, and that the veins were for the most part untouched. The mining was either in the beds of the streams or in the mountains. In process of time the rivers had changed their beds: the miners discovered that the primary beds were above the recent level; the next step was to the ground on the side of the present body of the stream. The first bed was easily worked, because little or no water remained there; only the surface was to be removed, and then the *cascalhao* was found. In the second step, wheels were often required to draw off the water: the new bed could only be worked by making a new cut, and diverting the stream. The wheel was a clumsy machine, which it was frequently necessary to remove, and fifty slaves or more were employed for many hours in removing it. This was the only means in use for saving human labor, for not even a cart or hand-barrow was to be seen; the rubbish and the *cascalhao* were carried in troughs upon the heads of slaves, who in many instances used to climb up steep ascents, where inclined planes might have been formed with very little trouble, and employed with great advantage. River-mining, however, was the easiest task, and the most effectually performed; it was, therefore, the most common. The mountains at length began to tempt adventurers. The mode of working in such ground is not by excavation, but by what is called the open cut,—laying the vein bare by clearing away the surface. This labor is immense, if water cannot be brought to act upon the spot; and even when there is water, it is not always easy to direct it, nor will the nature of the cut always allow its use. When the miners found no *cascalhao* in the mountains, they suspected that the stones might contain gold, and they were not deceived in the supposition, when the stones had been broken by iron mallets. When the gold is enveloped in earth or stone, each substance is pounded, and boiled with one tenth of its weight of quicksilver: this, by its attractive nature, absorbs the gold, and may be separated by pressure through bags of leather, and by subsequent distillation. So productive were the mines in the province of Minas Geraes, that, in little more than one hundred years, Vila Rica, the chief town, sent out of its smelting-house two millions of pounds of gold.

The Brazilian diamonds are chiefly procured in the mountainous district called Serra do Frio, in a stratum similar to that which contains gold; and sometimes both are found together. The substances which accompany diamonds (says Mr. Mawe), and are considered as good indications of them, are, bright bean-like iron ore, a slaty flint-like substance of iron texture, black oxyd of iron in great quantities, rounded bits of blue quartz, and yellow crystal. It is said that the number of diamonds sent to Lisbon during the first twenty years after the discovery of the mines in question, exceeded one thousand ounces in weight.

Topazes are found in abundance near Capao. Artificial hues are sometimes given to them by means of heat; but the natural color of the stone is greyish, or bright yellow, or a medium between this and the carnation hue, very rarely dark-red. Many are large, clear, and brilliant; but some are found to be of so imperfect a color, and so full of flaws, that they

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CLIMATE, RIVERS, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] In the northern parts, which are situated near the centre of the torrid zone, the air of the lower tracts, near the banks of the Amazonian river, is sultry and oppressive; but, even here, vegetation is kept in vigor by the humidity of the atmosphere. In this division of the empire, there is little distinction of seasons; the ground is constantly covered with flowers, the foliage is evergreen, and the abundant dews, the shade of the forests, and the agreeable coolness of the nights, are represented as giving the country the appearance of perpetual spring. Near the coast, the cooling effects of the trade-wind, after it has swept over the breadth of the Atlantic, are permanently experienced. In ascending toward the sources of the great rivers, the heat is allayed by the elevation of the ground; and, in many parts of the interior, fertile valleys are found, enjoying a temperate climate, where the vegetables of Europe are matured in the vicinity of those which are indigenous to a tropical soil. In some of the inland districts, indeed, the west wind, passing over vast marshy forests, is found unhealthy; but these blasts are much corrected by the influence of the aromatic plants. The northern provinces, particularly in March and September, are subject to heavy rains, variable winds, storms, tornadoes, and the utmost fury of the elements, while the southern division of the country is blessed with a settled and temperate climate, and is particularly salubrious.

In our account of Peru, we have taken notice of the river of the Amazons. The largest river of Brazil that is unconnected either with that mighty stream or the Plata, is the Francisco, which, after running to the northward for a great distance along the great longitudinal valley at the foot of the Brazilian Andes, turns to the east, and falls into the Atlantic after a course of 850 miles. The estuary of La Plata is the great drain for all the central waters south of the tributary streams of the Amazons. The land which divides one of these great rivers from the other, attains its greatest height between 13 and 14 degrees of southern latitude; and here the Paragua has its rise. This stream takes the name of the Rio de la Plata (River of Silver), after it has received the Paraua, which is formed by the accumulated waters of several extensive valleys. To the southward of the latter river is the Uruguay, which rushes into the Plata near Buenos-Ayres. These three rivers have, in the course of ages, produced some of the most extensive alluvial plains which exist on the face of the globe.

Only a comparatively small part of this immense country is cultivated; but, where the soil has been explored and tried, it appears in general to be highly fertile. Even the sandy soil near the coast promotes the growth of the cocoa-tree to a greater thickness and height than that of India assumes. The wood from which the country derives its name is very hard and heavy, takes a high polish, affords a crimson dye, and is subservient to medicinal purposes: the tree to which it belongs is not lofty, but, at a short distance from the ground, spreads out a number of branches in a straggling manner. Various trees resembling the oak and larch, and many others which are useful for ship-building and cabinet-work, thrive remarkably. There is a species of palm tree, which has long, serrated, lancet-formed leaves, composed of a multitude of fibres, almost equal to silk in fineness and in strength. The tea-plant is cultivated with success; the sugar-cane flourishes; and, from the fine grapes which are produced, good wine might be made with proper care and attention. Maize, beans, and cassava, the ordinary food of the inferior people, are abundantly furnished; as are

also yams and rice. The cotton plant supplies the merchants with a good article of exportation: they also export hides to a large amount, tobacco, coffee, drugs, dye-woods, and other commodities, for which they receive all kinds of European manufactures, beside corn, wine, and oil.

ANIMALS.] The woody parts of the country abound with wild beasts, among which the most ferocious are the hyæna, jaguar, ounce, wolf, tiger-cat, and saratu, an animal resembling a fox. Wild hogs are common, but they do not particularly molest the people. The largest quadruped is the tapir, which is in form like a hog, but grows to the size of a heifer: it is amphibious, and dives to the bottom of a lake or a pool, where it remains a long time without respiring. It is timid and harmless, and is easily killed by the hunters, who feed upon its flesh, which, they say, differs little in taste from that of an ox. The domestic animals are generally of the European species, having sprung from those which were introduced by the first settlers. Of the birds, the largest is the emu or ostrich, the fiercest is the vulture, and the smallest is the humming bird. The parrots and macaws of Brazil are well known; and many other birds with brilliant plumage haunt the fields and the forests. Of the reptiles the most formidable is the boa constrictor, a serpent as long and large as that species which is the pest of Surinam: it will so distend itself as to swallow a young bull entire.

CHIEF TOWNS, POPULATION, MANNERS.] The capital of Brazil was San-Salvador, frequently called Bahia. Its harbour is one of the finest in the world. The upper town is built on a high and steep rock, having the sea on one side, while a lake, forming a crescent, invests it almost wholly, so as nearly to join the sea, on the other. Its natural situation is very strong, and it is well fortified by art. The population was calculated, in 1803, at 100,000, and we believe that it is not much less at present.

The present capital is San-Sebastiano, usually called Rio Janeiro. Its style of building is in general mean, resembling that of the old division of Lisbon; but many parts are constructed in a better style, and the recent improvements are striking. When the late king of Portugal began to reside within its precincts, its population did not exceed 100,000; but the number of persons who emigrated with him, and the extraordinary afflux of foreigners, greatly swelled the amount. The opening of this and other ports gave a *stimulus* to commerce; the markets were better supplied; conveniences fell more within the reach of the common people; white servants were more generally seen; and the black slaves were treated with comparative mildness and humanity. The place then began to assume the appearance of an European city; the idea of a colony seemed no longer to be entertained; and Portugal became, as it were, a province of Brazil.

The imperial palace is unworthy of the dignity of the sovereign, being small, ill-built, and inconvenient. The bishop's palace is superior to it in every respect except that of internal decoration; but the cathedral in which he presides is a low, plain, and mean-looking edifice, and the churches in general are neither splendid nor elegant. In some of the squares are fountains supplied with water by a noble aqueduct, built in imitation of that which John V. erected near Lisbon. The harbour is large, secure, and commodious, and the trade of the town is particularly flourishing. In 1817, the exports, in the five chief articles (sugar, coffee, cotton, hides, and tobacco), amounted to 1,350,000 pounds sterling, and they are at present considerably more valuable, while the imports are much less.

The chief importance of the city is under the government of the governor, but both parts are nearly equal.

Para, formerly a city, situated on the banks of the Amazon, is famous for its gums, spices, and other articles; many of the people are da-ago.

The city of Bahia is the most important in Brazil, male inhabitants 100,000. The city is the seat of trade; but the population is nearly equal to that of Bahia.

The population of Bahia is the most numerous of the slaves, the Creoles are proud and haughty, but not altogether without talents. The times of extravagance and show, state, and extremely indolence, which have been soft and point which they continue to suffer those de- Slavery in Brazil.

With regard to the strength of their secured disagreeable beauty before the capital, also be- ciently and even with only a ch- Both sexes are though the pian- very fond of the fined state even- cessions are mo- bited. When they caused the pentine, and w- bamboo about blue, and adorn

The chief town of the province of Pernambuco is next in commercial importance to the two cities which we have just mentioned. It comprehends Olinda, built about the year 1535, and Recife, erected by the Dutch under the government of prince Maurice. The former division is finely situated, but is far from being so well-built or so populous as the latter. Both parts contain an aggregate of 70,000 persons, of whom the whites nearly form a third part.

Para, formerly called Belem, is a well-built, populous, and flourishing city, situated in one of the finest and most fertile provinces of the empire. It is annually visited by traders from Liverpool, who carry off its drugs, gums, spices, hides, and timber. Some of its inhabitants are expert ship-builders; many are skilful in other branches of art; and the rest of the people are daily shaking off that indolence which marked them a few years ago.

The city of Santo-Paulo deserves notice, not only because it is the oldest in Brazil, but for the strength, activity, and enterprising spirit of the male inhabitants, and the uncommon beauty and gracefulness of the females. The town, indeed, is not well-built; nor does it flourish in point of trade; but the population exceeds 27,000, and ease, comfort, and gaiety, appear to prevail.

The population of the whole empire is supposed to amount to four millions, the slaves being included in the calculation. The Europeans and the Creoles do not bear the best characters; for they are represented as proud and haughty in their deportment; insincere in conversation, and not altogether honest in dealing; sometimes meanly penurious, at other times extravagantly profuse; dissolute and unchaste, much more fond of show, state, and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society; extremely indolent, and disinclined to mental improvement, and to all those studies which require, for due proficiency, a length of time and a steadiness of patience. Some of the harsh outlines of this portrait appear to have been softened in the progress of the late revolution; and there is one point which may be mentioned as creditable to their characters:—though they continue the slave-trade, they treat their slaves with lenity, and suffer those degraded beings to enjoy, in general, the comforts of life. Slavery in Brazil (says Mr. Southey) has mitigations which are unknown in the British colonial islands.

With regard to their persons, the men have neither the look of health nor of strength; and the women, though pretty in their youth, derive from their secluded and indolent habits, and frequently from early marriage, a disagreeable corpulence, and, like the women of Scotland, lose all their beauty before they reach the age of twenty-five years. The men dress chiefly in the European mode; and the ladies, more particularly in the capital, also begin to follow our costume; but, in private, they are insufficiently and even immodestly clothed, appearing to their familiar friends with only a *chemise*, tied round the waist by the strings of a petticoat. Both sexes are attached to music, and the guitar is the favorite instrument, though the piano-forte is rising into vogue among the ladies. They are not very fond of theatrical amusements, and the drama is therefore in an unrefined state even in the most populous towns. Religious festivals and processions are more numerous attended, and an air of pious zeal is then exhibited. When the gentry appeared abroad on these and on other occasions, they caused themselves to be carried out in a kind of hammock, called *serpentine*, and were thus borne on the shoulders of negroes, by the help of a bamboo about twelve or fourteen feet long. Most of these hammocks were blue, and adorned with fringes of the same color: they had a velvet pillow,

and a kind of tester, with curtains; so that the person carried could not be seen, unless he wished to show himself, but might either lie down, or sit up leaning on his pillow. When he had a wish to be seen, he pulled the curtains aside, and saluted his friends whom he met in the streets; for they used to take pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and would even hold long conferences in them; but then the two slaves who carried them made use of a strong staff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron: this they stuck fast in the ground, and rested the bamboo on two of these, until the conversation was concluded. Scarcely any man of fashion, or lady, would pass the streets without being carried in this manner; but this mode of conveyance is now giving way to the use of a *cabriolet* or chaise.

Many of the indigenous tribes of Brazil are not in full subjection to the Portuguese, against whom, in the inland parts, they occasionally rise with fierce animosity. Against one of the tribes in the eastern part of the empire the charge of cannibalism is still adduced, but it does not appear to be fully proved. The appellation of *Botocudo* has been given to this tribe by the Portuguese, in consequence of the strange habit of inserting, more for ornament than convenience, a circular piece of wood in each ear and in the lower lip. These savages are strong and well-proportioned, and, though they have high cheek-bones, small eyes, and thick lips, have not such unpleasing countenances as many of the other tribes exhibit. They have strong, jet-black, shining hair; many eradicate the eye-brows and the beard, and the women are such determined enemies to hair, that they discard it entirely. The latter wear necklaces of hard berries or the teeth of animals, and some of the chiefs wear a sort of feathered diadem. Every man attaches a knife to his neck by a cord; and a bow and arrows are also among their ordinary implements. When they are engaged in hunting, they are capable of great physical exertion; but, at other times, they are remarkably indolent. When they associate with the civilised provincials, they will submit to the trouble of being clothed; but, in their own districts, they go entirely naked. They construct tolerable huts, but do not sleep in nets or hammocks, like most of the Brazilian tribes, being content with reposing on the ground, the bark of a tree supplying them with a rude bed. In a moral respect, they are not the worst of the tribes; and, however ferocious they may be, they are not wholly destitute of the feelings of domestic affection, of friendship, gratitude, or compassion. They bury their dead in or near a hut, and then abandon the spot. They attribute to the moon a wonder-working power in the system of nature, have a tradition of a general deluge, and believe in the existence and malignant practices of demons.

The Patachoes are as brave, but not so fierce, as the Botocudoes. They compose a numerous tribe of naked savages, rude and uncouth in their manners, and particularly unwilling to be on friendly terms with the provincials, with whom, however, they are glad to barter their trifling commodities for knives and red handkerchiefs.

In the province of Matto-Grosso we find the Guaycurues, a powerful tribe, consisting of three divisions, hostile to each other. Three classes constitute the community,—a species of *noblesse*, the subordinate warriors, and captives. The women are usually covered with a mantle of colored cotton, which is fastened by a broad girdle, while the men have no other clothing than a belt of the same cloth. Many of the former encompass their necks, arms, and legs, with ornaments of silver or shells, and the latter wear feathers of various hues for the purpose of decoration. The men are diligent in hunting, fishing, gathering honey and

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wild fruits, and in the manufacture of arms and canoes, while the females spin, make clothing, cords, and mats. Pasturage is preferred to agriculture, which, indeed, they despise. To avoid the trouble consequent on a large family, not only recourse is had to the means of procuring abortion, but even the guilt of infanticide is contracted.

While the Guaycurues chiefly dwell in the open country, the woods which border on various streams flowing into the Parana, are inhabited by the Cahans, a half-civilised tribe, supposed to be the descendants of the people who were converted and enslaved by the Jesuits of Paraguay. They still have some practices bordering on barbarism, but retain a sense of religion and morality.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] A Spaniard named Pinzon, who accompanied Columbus on his first voyage, crossed the equator in the year 1500, and reached the coast of Brazil, to the southward of Pernambuco. He took formal possession of the adjacent country, but did not make any settlement. In the same year, Cabral, who was sent from Portugal to India for the purposes of conquest and colonisation, sailed so far to the westward, to avoid the calms which prevailed near the African coast, that he unexpectedly found himself on the shores of South-America. To the place where he landed he gave the appellation of Porto-Seguro; but it is now, in honor of him, called Cabralia. Americo Vespuccio afterwards disembarked on this coast, and commenced a friendly intercourse with the natives, whom he soon found to be cannibals. A settlement was formed in the year 1503; but the hostilities of the natives checked its progress, and it was not before the year 1549 that a regular plan of colonisation took place under the auspices of John III. Thomas de Souza, being then appointed governor-general, was ordered to build and fortify a city, which was to be called San-Salvador; and, near the Bay of All-Saints, he carried the royal mandate into effect. The colonists, at first, met with some interruption from the king of Spain, who considered the whole continent of South-America as belonging to him. The dispute, however, was at length accommodated; and it was agreed that the Portuguese should possess all the country between the rivers Amazon and Plata. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were expelled by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1578, when, in the meridian of their prosperity, they felt one of those severe blows which generally decide the fate of kingdoms. Don Sebastian lost his life in an expedition against the Moors; and by that event the Portuguese lost their independence, and became the subjects of his catholic majesty. The Dutch, soon after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, and not being satisfied with supporting their independence by a successful defensive war, but flushed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, pursued the Spaniards into their remotest territories, and became rich, powerful, and formidable, by the spoils of their former masters. They particularly attacked the possessions of the Portuguese; they took almost all their fortresses in the East Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brazil, where they reduced seven of the captainships or provinces, and would have subdued the rest, if their career had not been stopped by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered troops. The Dutch were, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brazil; 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, for a renunciation of their interest in that territory.

From that time to the year 1807, nothing particularly memorable

occurred in the history of Brazil; but, as the ambitious violence of the French then menace^d Portugal with subjugation, the regent of that realm (afterwards John VI.) adopted a resolution, which had been frequently suggested, of retiring with his court beyond the Atlantic, to a country which his enemies, for want of maritime power, would be obliged to leave unassailed. Having collected his ships of war, he bade adieu to his European realm, and, on his arrival at San-Salvador, was received with the loudest expressions of joy. Transferring to Rio-Janeiro the dignity of the capital, he resided in this city for some years, and improved by judicious regulations the state of the country. In 1815 he elevated Brazil to the rank of a kingdom, and seemed to be more interested in its prosperity than in that of his old realm; but, when the revolution had broken out in Portugal, he was induced, in 1821, to return to Lisbon. The Brazilians were now so sensible of their consequence and their power, that they resolved to shake off all dependence on Portugal; and, when the king's son, don Pedro, acted as viceroy, they urged him to resist the views and intentions of the popular leaders at Lisbon, who hoped to reclaim them to colonial subjection. The prince was now recalled to Europe by the ruling assembly, but refused to quit Brazil, and concurred with the people in sending away the Portuguese troops. It was the general wish that a representative government should be organised in the new kingdom, and a decree was therefore promulgated by the prince for the election of burgesses and provincial deputies. Being menaced with war by the Portuguese, the leading Brazilians testified their resentment by disclaiming all political connexion with the mother-country, and even conferred the imperial dignity on don Pedro, who, when he received the new crown, bound himself by oath to defend with his sword the country, the people, and the expected constitution. This settlement, however, was not universally approved, because it was the wish of many that a republic should be established. Intestine commotions now arose: some of the richest churches of San-Salvador were stripped of their plate by the mal-content party, and the public chest was carried off. Lord Cochrane, who had been appointed admiral of Brazil, intercepted several ships in their retreat from the bay, but had no opportunity of recovering the spoils of the city. Para was, at the same time, convulsed with all the acrimony of dissension. Three parties contended for pre-eminence; — the republicans, the adherents of don Pedro, and the friends of Portugal. Many rioters, aided by a military force, committed brutal outrages in the town, until a body of seamen, detached by lord Cochrane, acted in defence of social order. A number of volunteers joined the sailors, and reduced the disturbers of the public peace to full submission. Five of the rioters were instantly shot, and about 150 were sent to a prison-ship, which, with its former inmates, contained 250 men, including a few Europeans. Of the whole number, it is said, only four remained alive on the ensuing morning, after a mutual massacre of the most savage nature.

By the new constitution, which was completed in 1824, the government was declared to be an hereditary and representative monarchy; a senate was to be formed by popular election, and its members were to enjoy their dignity for their lives; deputies, of twice the number of the senators, were to be chosen for four years; but the emperor might dissolve this branch of the legislature whenever he might think proper, though he was bound to order new elections without delay: the civil and political rights of all the citizens (among whom, however, slaves were not included) were pronounced inviolable: the judicial power was rendered perfectly in-

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dependent, so as to secure the impartiality of law; and, while the Romish faith was stated to be the religion of the empire, all other modes of worship were to be tolerated, though not allowed to be publicly solemnised. At the time when this constitution began to take effect, the public revenue, which, when John VI. commenced his residence in Brazil, had been less than 600,000 pounds, nearly reached the sum of four millions sterling: the regular army amounted to 27,500 men, and 50,000 composed the militia.

GUIANA.

This extensive country is divided among the Spaniards, Portuguese, English, French, and Dutch. The Spanish portion is variously given by geographers: but it seems to be bounded by the Orinoco on the north and the west, and to extend on the south to the river Negro, while it has the Atlantic and the British and Dutch Guiana on the east. The seat of government is San-Tomé, or Old Guiana; the other considerable towns are Ciudad-Real, Maypures, and Real-Corona. The population of the province is very scanty, not far exceeding 35,000. The river rises among the interior mountains of the province of Caracas, and flows through an immense valley, receiving many tributary streams, until it reaches the sea near the gulf of Paria. It is remarkable for rising and falling once in a year; for it gradually rises during five months, and is then stationary for one month, after which it falls for five months. This phenomenon is attributed to the rains that fall on the mountains from which it originates.

British Guiana comprehends the three colonies of Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice. The first borders on the country occupied by the Caribs, and the last on Surinam. These three settlements flourish in point of cultivation, even more than they did when they were possessed by the Hollanders. M. de Pradt says, that the colony of Berbice, which was established in 1626, has, after passing through various hands, fallen into a state of great weakness; and he adds, that Essequibo and Demerara are much more valuable: but the first has also been greatly improved by its new possessors, who have peopled and brought into use an extensive tract seemingly borrowed from the sea. The principal objects of cultivation are coffee, cotton, sugar, and rice. Almost the whole population consists of blacks and people of color; but the chief power is exercised by the whites. Savage tribes are dispersed over the country. They are as indolent as the colonists are industrious; for they only have recourse to labor when they are urged by the necessity of procuring fresh supplies of sustenance. They rarely wear any other apparel than a piece of cloth tied round the waist; and this, by the women, is sometimes decorated in the front with beads or other ornaments. The men practise polygamy, treat their wives in an arbitrary and imperious manner, watch them with jealous eyes, and compel them to perform the most laborious tasks. Exclusive of these barbarians, the population may be estimated at 70,000.

Dutch Guiana includes the colony of Surinam, which once belonged to the English, but was given up to the Hollanders when the New-Netherlands were obtained by Great-Britain. The interior parts are ill-peopled, and the chief settlements are not very distant from the sea. The chief town is Paramaribo, inhabited by 5000 persons. It stands on the Surinam

river, and is a place of considerable trade: "The eye (says M. de Pradt) contemplates with surprise and pleasure the wonderful effects of the patience and perseverance of the Dutch, who, striving against nature itself, have converted a marshy country infested with reptiles into a cheerful abode. Never did people submit to more painful labor; but they have received the reward of it in the prosperous extension of their agriculture for more than twenty leagues." The progress of interior cultivation, however, is checked by the occasional hostilities of the savages, who cannot patiently submit to the continued intrusion of strangers, and who are sometimes joined by negro revolters; and all the efforts of the Europeans are incapable of rendering this country a desirable abode. In some expeditions against the insurgents, the soldiers have been obliged to march almost up to their necks in water. The climate is very unhealthy; venomous insects, and the most mischievous serpents, harass and alarm the colonists; vampires suck their blood when they are sleeping; and wild beasts augment the danger to which they are exposed. The chief productions of the country are cotton, flax, coffee, sugar, tobacco, and dyeing-drugs. All the towns and forts in this province were taken by the English with little difficulty, in the year 1804; but they were restored by that treaty which closed the war.

French Guiana extends 300 miles to the north of the Portuguese division. The French began to colonise this country about the year 1613; but, for twenty years, the settlers made very small progress. Many of the Buccaneers, in ranging along the coast, cast an eager eye upon this spot, and were apparently inclined to put an end to their wanderings, when they thought of plundering Surinam. They failed in that enterprise, and were driven by the French from their possessions in Cayenne. This is the name of an island which borders on the coast of Guiana; but the appellation is sometimes given to the whole French province. The island is about forty-five miles in circuit. Its air is unhealthy, and the soil poor. The chief town is fortified with walls and bastions; but it is ill-built and weakly garrisoned. When the French were dispossessed of Canada, they sent 9000 persons to compensate that loss by the improvement of the colony of Cayenne: but the greater part of the number perished miserably in the rainy season, for want of the common conveniences and comforts of life. The island and its dependencies were taken by the English and Portuguese, in 1809, but were restored with some augmentation at the peace.

The Oyapoc was then made the boundary between French and Portuguese Guiana. From the mouth of that river, M. Bodin, a French officer, set out in the year 1824 for a discovery of its source. In his progress he met with the tribe of the Oyampis, and exacted from their chieftain an oath of allegiance to the king of France. He found that they cultivated the cotton plant with success, and that in other respects they were usefully employed; but he conceived an unfavorable idea of their dispositions, when he observed a tree of which the sap and the leaves were poisonous. From this source, he had reason to believe, they derived the means of rendering their arrows more decisively fatal.

Portuguese Guiana is scantily peopled and imperfectly known. It extends 900 miles from east to west, but is not proportionally broad. The remotest station to the west is the fort of St. Joseph, on the left bank of the Rio Negro. Between this fort and Lamalonga, about 350 miles below, there are seventeen small towns or villages, chiefly occupied by natives who have been half-civilised by the Portuguese ecclesiastics. The town which takes its name from the river, is rendered in some degree flourish-

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ing by manufactures and trade. The Japura fertilises a part of this province, but no more contributes to its salubrity than the great Amazonian river, which infects the air with its slimy deposits. Montalegre is a considerable town in the eastern division, and the neighbouring country is fertile and well cultivated: the clove-tree is said to prosper in this district.

AMERICAN ISLANDS, BELONGING TO DIFFERENT POWERS.

In the West-Indies, the largest island is CUBA, which still belongs to the declining and feeble monarchy of Spain. It was conquered by a very small army under Velasquez, in 1511. It is divided by a chain of mountains, from which, it is said, above a hundred streams pour down into the plains, some of them contributing gold to the avidity of the colonists. At the foot of each mountain, the country opens into extensive meadows, which afford abundant pasture to numerous herds of animals, both wild and tame. The air is less sultry than that of Hispaniola, being cooled by the breezes from the north and east. July, August, and sometimes September, are rainy months: the rest of the year, with the exception of a short winter, resembles a continued spring. The products are maize, manioc, aloes, cassia, mastic, coffee, ginger, sugar, honey, and the best tobacco. The country does not abound with mineral riches; but it appears, that some mines of copper and iron have been discovered. Havanna is the seat of government, and is so well fortified, that the Spaniards consider it as impregnable: but, if a new war should arise, the English would probably again convince them of their error. The houses of this city, in general, have only two floors, and are usually painted with some bright color. All the good houses are built in the following mode: a gallery, surrounded by a piazza, extends around the first floor, and forms, with the court below, a place of recreation in the evening, and a shelter from the heat during the day. The inhabitants are gay, and fond of amusement. Balls, plays, bull-fights, and other diversions, alternately enliven them; and the drawing of the national lottery, which takes place in every month, is so conducted as to resemble a fair or a festival. The men who compose the lower classes,—namely, the common Spaniards, the people of color, free negroes, and slaves,—are in general very dissolute and unprincipled; and the city (says Mr. Howison) “is the scene of more outrages and daring crimes than any other of its size in the civilised world.” The population of the whole island is supposed to amount to 410,000.

PORTO-RICO was reduced under the Spanish yoke, by Ponce de Leon, about the year 1509. It is beautifully diversified with woods, valleys, and plains; and is very fertile in the usual products of the West-Indies. 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. The capital stands in a small island on the north side, forming a capacious harbour, joined to the chief island by a causey, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken by sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland

but not retained. This island is no longer in the humble state of a Spanish colony; for the people, some years ago, shook off the degrading yoke.

HAYTI, the Hispaniola of Columbus, (also called **ST. DOMINGO**), was for a long period possessed by the Spaniards alone; but the Buccaneers subsequently settled on various parts of the coast, and the treaty of Ryswick gave an establishment to a French colony, with which the piratical adventurers were incorporated. The face of the island presents an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and rivers, and the soil is exceedingly fertile, abundantly producing sugar, coffee, cotton, tobacco, maize, and cassava. The European cattle have become so numerous 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 silver and gold were formerly discovered; but the colonists are now content with procuring those metals in the way of trade.

The most ancient town in this island, and in all the New World, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded in 1504 by Bartholomew Columbus, who gave it that name in honor of his father Dominic. It is situated on a spacious harbour, and is a large well-built city. While the French continued to occupy the most fruitful part of the island, the town which took its name from Cape François, situated on the northern coast, was their capital. It stood on the borders of a well-watered and highly-cultivated plain, 50 miles long and ten in breadth, intersected by straight and wide roads, lined with hedges of lemon and lime-trees, leading to plantations which produced a greater quantity of sugar than any other spot of the same extent in the world. Before the year 1793, it had a population of 8000; but it was then set on fire amidst the commotions of the colony, and the white inhabitants were massacred by the negro revolters, who were encouraged to insurrection by the affected zeal of the national assembly of France for the emancipation of all slaves. After the French division of the island had been for some years convulsed with civil war, the English inconsiderately interfered, and took possession of various posts; but, after a dreadful loss of men in that sultry and unhealthy climate, they at length abandoned their acquisitions. An African, 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. Bonaparté sent out an armament to reduce him to a state of dependence upon France, and restore order in the colony. After several encounters, the negro chief was induced to submit, and to accept terms apparently favorable: but the French perfidiously seized him, under an ill-founded charge of treacherous practices, and sent him to France, where he perished in a dungeon. The other black chiefs who had submitted (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. The survivors were given up as prisoners to a British fleet; and Dessalines obtained the chief sway. When that tyrant had lost his life by the indignation which his conduct had provoked, Christophe assumed the title and authority of a king; and this adventurer was not so unenlightened as to neglect the means of promoting the civilisation of his people; for he endeavoured to subject them to the restraints of judicious laws, and established a number of schools for their instruction. For his occasional

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The French had obtained, from the king of Spain, a cession of his division of the island; but they only so far profited by it, as to keep the city of St. Domingo for a few years. It was then re-taken by the Spaniards, who were assisted on that occasion by British troops. When the revolutionists of Colombia had shaken off the Spanish yoke, the inhabitants seemed desirous of placing their town under the protection of the new state; but, before any stipulations of that kind were adjusted, Boyer, who had raised himself to the chief power, under the title of president, found an opportunity of annexing that part of the island to the territories of the Haytian republic. In 1825, he purchased of the French king, for 6,250,000 pounds sterling, a renunciation of all claims to the sovereignty of the island. This supposed act of justice was far from being expected by the less honest politicians of Europe; and he was therefore censured for his profuse liberality. To please his new friends, he at the same time deprived the British merchants of that favor and preference which they had for some years enjoyed at Port-au-Prince and other ports of the island.

MARTINIQUE is about 120 miles to the north-west of Barbadoes, and is distinguished at a considerable distance by a lofty mountain near the centre. From its hills are poured out, on every side, agreeable and useful rivers, which adorn and enrich it in a high degree. The products of the soil are cotton, indigo, tobacco, ginger, and the finest fruit: but sugar is the principal commodity, of which a great quantity is exported annually. The bays and harbours are numerous, and so well fortified, that they used to bid defiance to all attacks. However, in the war that commenced in the year 1755, when the English 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 in 1794, but restored to the French by the treaty of Amiens. A subsequent seizure was also followed by restitution.

The island contains some well-built towns; and St. Pierre, in particular, makes a better appearance than Fort-Royal, the capital. The inhabitants are gay, lively, frank, and generous, but proud, arbitrary, and self-willed.

GUADALOUPE scarcely yields to Martinique in value, or importance. It is about 75 miles to the south of Antigua, and 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 Martinique, and the produce is of the same kind. The island is in a flourishing state, and its exports of sugar are very abundant. In 1759 it was reduced by the British arms, but was given back at the peace of 1763. It was captured in 1794, but evacuated a few months afterward. When it had fallen into our hands in the last war, it was transferred to the Swedes, in return for their accession to the grand confederacy against France; and, when it was deemed expedient to conciliate the French by a restoration of their principal colonies, we kindly gave the Swedes a million sterling, that they might be induced to relinquish the island with a good grace.

The isle of ST. BARTHOLOMEW, which the French resigned in 1785, is the only spot in the West-Indies possessed by the Swedes; and

it is so small and sterile, that the acquisition appears to be one of very little value. The produce is confined to a small quantity of cotton, by the sale of which the poor in the interior principally subsist. Sour-sops, prickly pears, and some other wild fruits, grow here spontaneously, as also a few tamarind-trees, and the poisonous manchineel in great abundance.

ST. EUSTATIUS, or EUSTATIA, three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's, makes a remarkable appearance, as it rises out of the sea in the form of a huge pyramidal rock. The sides of the mountain are disposed in pleasant settlements; but the inhabitants have neither springs nor rivers. They raise sugar and tobacco, and rear hogs, goats, and poultry, in such abundance, that they can supply their neighbours as well as themselves. The population is said to exceed 20,000, of whom the whites comprise a fourth part. The island has a bay, but no harbour; and there is only one landing-place, which is therefore well fortified. The Dutch, in various wars with the English, have been dispossessed of this settlement; but they have never failed to recover it on the return of peace.

CURAÇAO is likewise a colonial dependency upon the kingdom of the Netherlands. 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 on the rains for water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America. Yet they have in a great measure remedied that defect; and they have, upon this harbour, one of the best towns in the West Indies. The public buildings are handsome, the private houses commodious, and the magazines large, convenient, and well-filled. All kind of labor is here performed by engines, some of them being so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock. The island produces a considerable quantity both of tobacco and sugar; it has also good salt-works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands, and the colonies on the continent.

SAINTE CROIX, or SANTA CRUZ, and the isle of SAINT THOMAS, while they remained in the hands of the Danish West-India company, were ill managed, and of little consequence to the Danes; but, when the king had purchased the company's stock, and laid the trade open, both islands began to flourish, and they are now in a high state of cultivation. They were taken by the English in 1801, but were restored a few months afterwards. They were again captured in consequence of the war which followed the seizure of the Danish fleet in 1807; but they were replaced under their former government in 1814, when the Danes had consented to give up Norway to our Swedish allies.

Passing along the eastern coast of South-America, we find, almost at the southern extremity of that region,

The FALKLAND or MALOUIN islands, which were discovered by Sir Richard Hawkins in 1594. The name of Falkland was probably given to them by captain Strong, in 1639; but the French call them the Malouin islands, from the people of St. Malo, whom they consider as the discoverers. They occasioned a contest between Spain and Great Britain; but, being of very little worth, they were abandoned by the latter in 1774, to avoid giving umbrage to the Spanish court.

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The island which the Spaniards call TIERRA DEL FUEGO derived its name from the volcanoes observed upon it. It is separated from the main-land of South-America by that strait which was explored by Magalhaens, a Portuguese adventurer in the service of Spain, who sailed through it in 1520, and thus discovered a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean. He has been since considered as the first navigator that sailed round the world: but, as he lost his life in a skirmish with some savages before the ships returned to Europe, the honor of being the first circumnavigator is more properly assigned to Sir Francis Drake, who, in 1574, passed the same strait in his way to India, whence he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616, Le Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the southward of that strait, discovered, between the isle called Staten-land and Tierra del Fuego, another passage, since known by his name; and this route, which has been generally preferred by succeeding navigators, is called the doubling of Cape-Horn. Some mariners were induced to avoid these straits and islands, by running down to 61 or 62 degrees of southern latitude, before they set their faces westward, to the South-Sea; but both passages seem now to have lost their terrors.

Of the people of this dreary and inclement spot, the latest account is given by captain Weddell, who, in quest of new fisheries and a new continent or an extensive island, proceeded, in 1823, 214 geographical miles farther to the southward than any preceding adventurer. When he had reached the latitude of 74 degrees, he was stopped in his course by the prevalence of a south wind, and was therefore induced to return, entertaining, however, a confident opinion that the South Pole is more attainable than the North. The latter, he says, has a great deal of land about it, which generates field ice, while the former, though in a hemisphere proportionally colder than the northern, exhibits a sea perfectly free from field ice in a latitude equal to 84 degrees in the north. The only animals which he observed in this part of his voyage were birds of the blue petrel kind and whales. Having given to this part of the ocean the denomination of George the Fourth's Sea, he sailed to Tierra del Fuego, and anchored in St. Martin's Cove. The natives were filled with amazement at the sight of the vessels, and fear at first prevented them from approaching; but some of them at last ventured on board. These islanders, he says, "are of low stature, rarely exceeding five feet five inches. They have small eyes, flat noses, small arms, full and well-formed chests; their legs are ill-shaped, in consequence perhaps of the custom of sitting on their calves, in which position their appearance is truly awkward. The women are better-featured than the men; many of their faces are interesting; and, in my opinion, they have a more lively sense of what passes. The only clothing which the males wear is a skin over their shoulders, reaching little more than half-way down the back; some have not even this sorry garment. The females have generally larger skins over their shoulders, and are in other respects clothed as decency requires."

The women seem to do almost all the work that is deemed requisite. They construct the huts; they paddle the canoes, while the men sit at their ease; collect shell-fish for the sustenance of the family; and make baskets of plaited grass. With regard to their mode of living, they appear to have every thing in common; no system of government prevails among them; and their families live in mutual friendship, in a state of patriarchal simplicity.

Beyond Cape Horn, as we proceed northward in the Great South-Sea, we arrive at CHILOE, which has some harbours well fortified. It is si-

tuated near the coast of Chilè, and is about 120 miles long, and 30 broad. It is the chief island of a considerable groupe, about forty in number, thirty of which are inhabited by Europeans, Creoles, mulattoes, and converted natives of the old Chilean race. The land is mountainous, and covered in many parts with almost impenetrable thickets. The rains are frequent and excessive, and are sometimes accompanied with tremendous hurricanes. Castro was formerly the chief town; but San-Carlos afterwards became the seat of government. Chiloe remained in the possession of the king of Spain for many years after the revolutionists had organised the Chilean state; but it was at length reduced by the vigor of their arms.

About 300 miles to the west from the coast of Chilè is an island called JUAN FERNANDES from the adventurer by whom it was first discovered. It is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It seems that one Alexander Selkirk, a North-Briton, was left on this solitary spot 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 the skin of a goat, 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 ears, which he dismissed. 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, on 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 communications and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned the papers to Selkirk; 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.

This island was colonised by the Spaniards in 1767; and a small town was built and fortified near the north-west point. It is, for the most part, a rocky spot; but it contains some fertile valleys, abounding with trees.

The other islands which claim transient notice are the Galapago 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. The former are so called from the turtles with which they abound: some of them are well-wooded, and others have a fertile soil; and the climate is more temperate than might be expected from their situation.

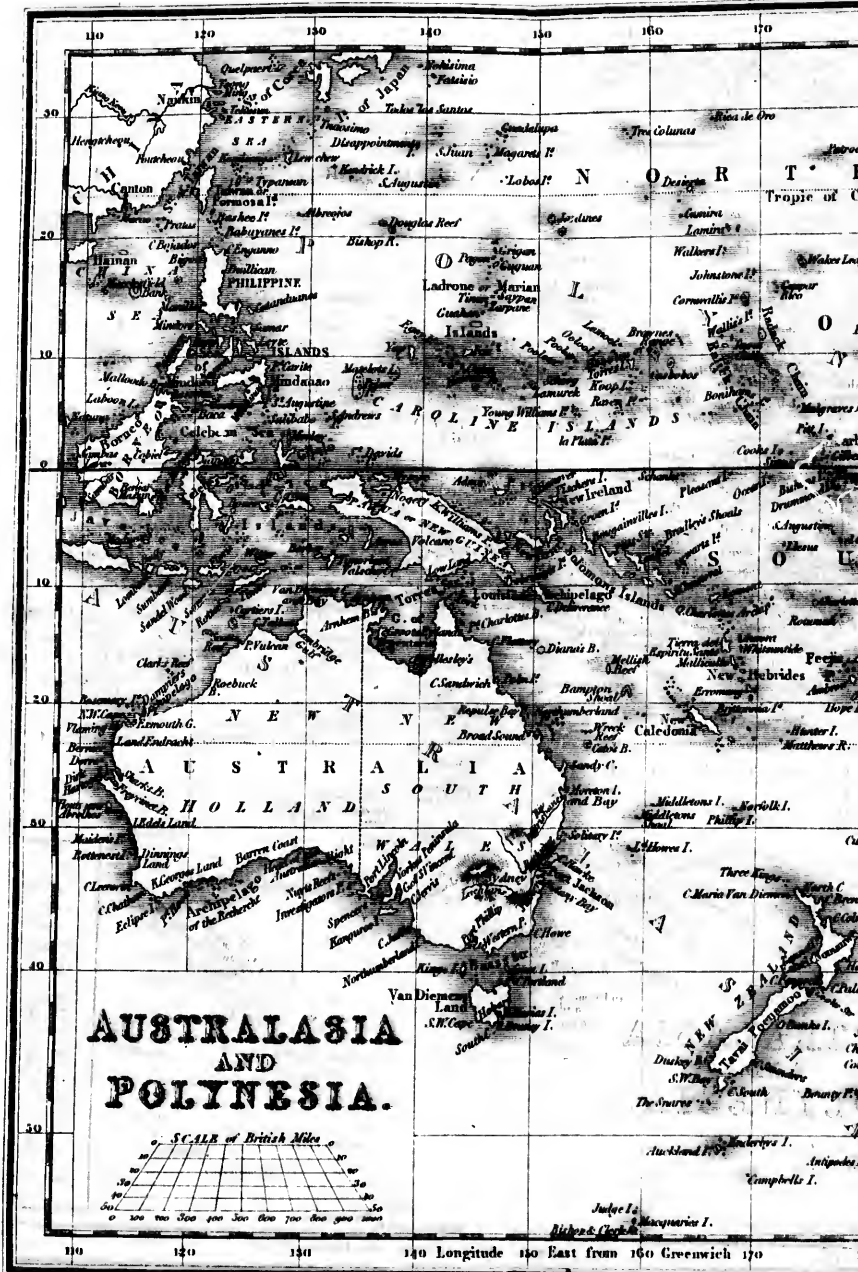
Having thus conducted our readers through the four quarters of the terraqueous globe, we might repose under the idea of a termination of our labors, if we did not consider that some parts of the world, not included in any one of those great divisions, call for our notice. The territories to which we allude are styled AUSTRALASIA and POLYNESIA.

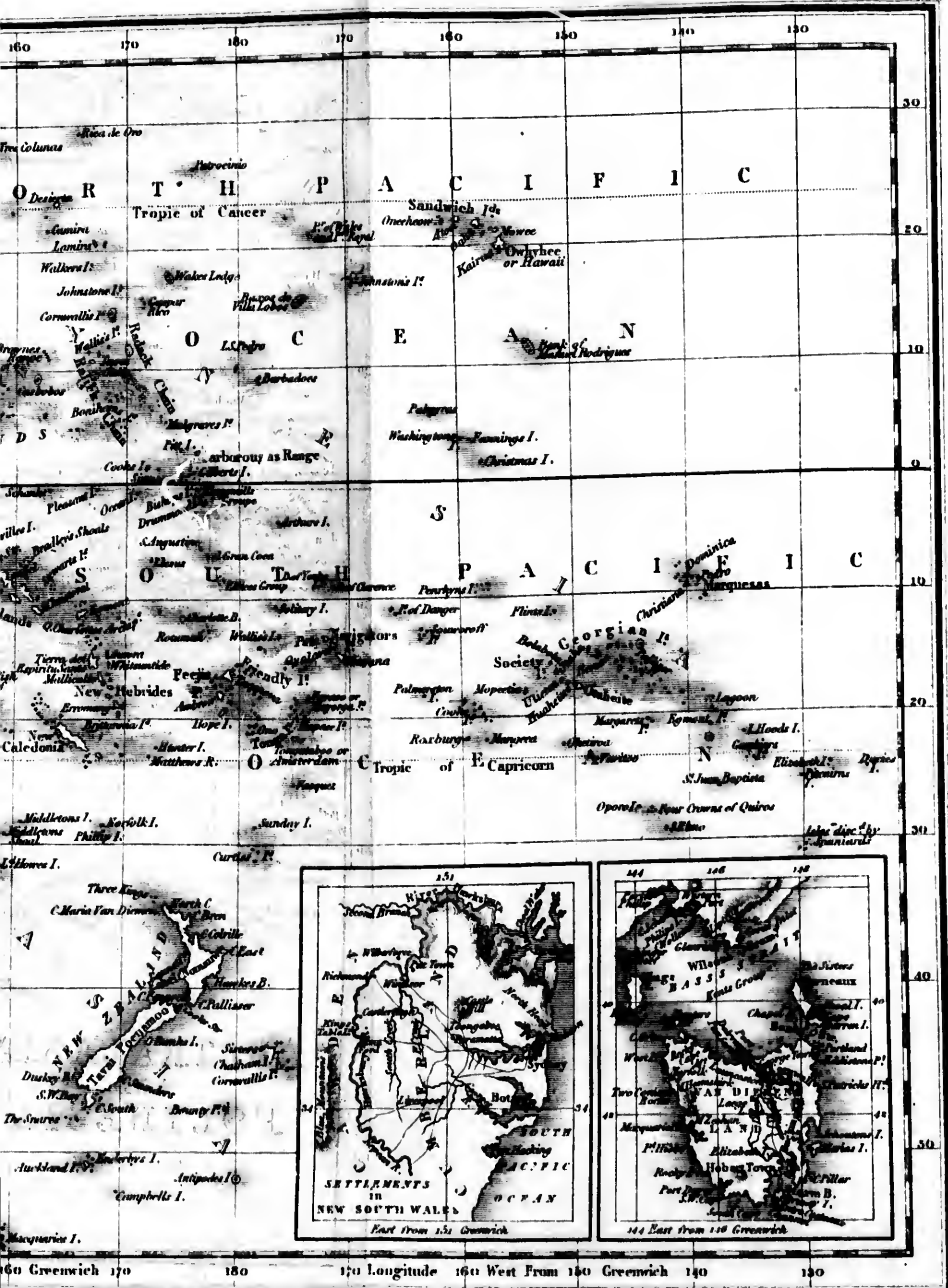
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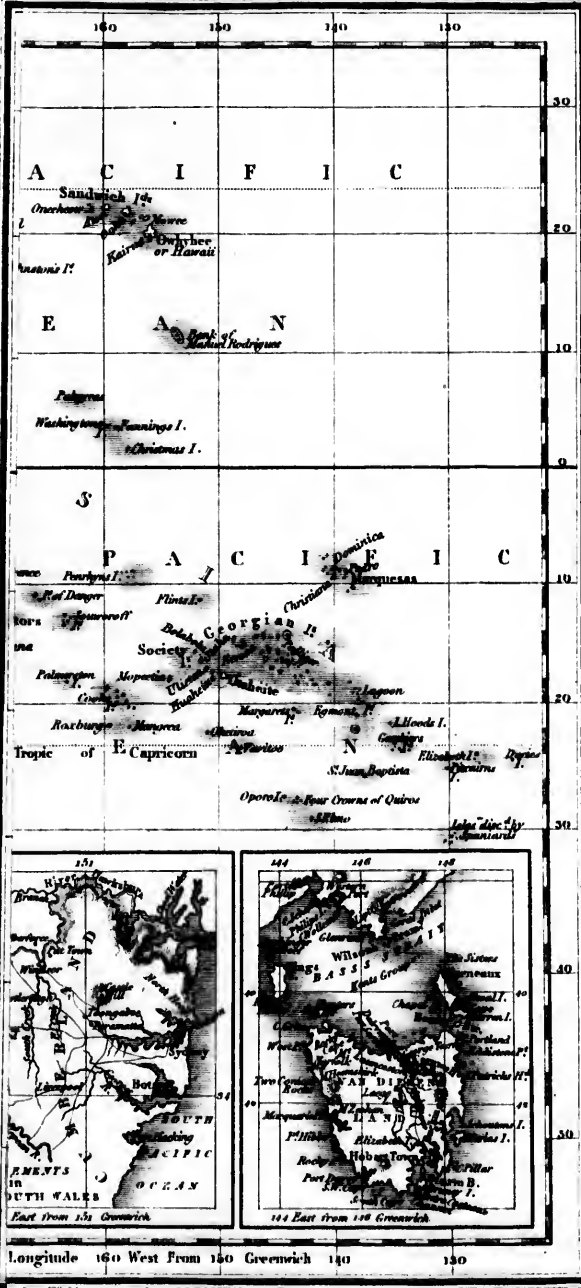
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AUSTRALASIA.

THE largest island in the world is New-Holland: it may rather be regarded as a continent. Its former appellation has been lately superseded by that of *Australasia*, which implies both its southern situation and its propinquity to Asia. Its inhabitants are few, compared with its extent; but, in the lapse of time, it will undoubtedly flourish in population and in arts. Some geographers have attributed the original discovery of this territory to the Spaniards or Portuguese; but that honor seems to be more justly claimed by the Dutch, who, in 1616, surveyed various parts of the coast, and, in 1642, made almost the circuit of the island. From that time it received little notice, until captain Cook explored the eastern coast. As he made a favorable report of the country bordering upon an inlet which he called Botany-Bay, from the number of plants that appeared on the spot, it was resolved that a colony should be formed of the convicts of both sexes who filled the prisons of Great-Britain, and who perhaps might be reclaimed by being removed from the scenes of their guilt to a distant country, in which the novelty and exigencies of their situation might rouse them to the exertions of honest industry. When the first party landed, in 1788, the bay was found less advantageous for a settlement than Port Jackson, which is situated at the distance of fifteen miles to the northward. From an entrance not more than two miles wide this port gradually extends into a noble and capacious basin, containing a great number of 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, about five 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 about Port Jackson is of various qualities. Some parts are very fertile, while others are sandy and barren. Wheat, barley, and maize, are cultivated with success by the colonists; and various fruit-trees, imported from Brazil and the Cape of Good Hope, thrive as well as in their native soil. Most of the indigenous trees are ever-greens, and among these are the red and blue gum-trees, different species of oak, and trees which bear fruits in some degree resembling the ordinary kinds of Europe, the cypress, ash, &c. Among the more curious trees and plants found here we may particularly mention the lofty cabbage-palm, the gigantic lily, a very strong species of vine; the finger-flower, more beautiful than the fox-glove of Europe, and exceedingly fragrant; the purple shell-flower; the scarlet woodbine; the serrated star-plant; the fern pine, which bears a fruit resembling a chestnut; and a low tree, which bears long coarse grass, exudes an useful gum, has flowers full of honey, and furnishes, by its stem, a spear for the natives. The most useful kinds of wood, for building or for the furniture of houses, are the red and white cedars, the blue-gum, and mahogany; but the last is very scarce.

Few species of quadrupeds were found by the colonists, beside the kangaroo and a wolf-like dog. The former is about the size of a sheep, has a head like that of a deer, a thin and finely proportioned neck, very short fore-legs, and stout and long hind-legs, on which, instead of running, it springs forward. Its general position, when at rest, is that of standing on its

hind-feet. It is a timid quiet animal; but, when it is attacked, defends itself by its tail. The female, like the opossum, has a large pouch to which its young occasionally retire as a place of shelter and security.

Among the birds are eagles, hawks, king-fishers, penguins, crows, quails, snipes, rollers, wattle-birds, parrots, cockatoos, thrushes, the short-billed goose, the black swan, and a bird between the turkey and the vulture. There are few reptiles; but the snakes which appear are particularly dreaded by the natives, because almost all of them are venomous.

The climate is subject to violent variations of temperature, but is not so unhealthy as that of the East or the West Indies. Mr. Wentworth, indeed, says that it is highly salubrious. The winter is sometimes frosty, but not severely cold. The rains are not of long duration, and fogs are very infrequent. The thermometer is sometimes as high as the hundredth degree, during the dry land-winds; but this excess of heat is transient. Violent storms of thunder and lightning occasionally happen, and inundations ravage the country; proving only, that the blessings of life are mingled with disadvantages.

The chief mineral product of the country is iron, which is said to be purer in some places than in any other part of the world: it is sometimes found imbedded with copper pyrites. Coal of a good quality is very abundant; and that which has been found to the south of Hunter's river particularly displays its vegetable origin. Granite, lime-stone, and slate, are procured in sufficient plenty; and the Blue Mountains are principally composed of sand-stone.

The capital of this colony is Sydney, which stands on two hills and in the intervening valley. From the extent of ground included in its circuit, it might be supposed to contain at least 20,000 persons; but the houses are so scattered, and so much ground is annexed to the majority of the number, that the population is not much more than one half of that amount. The houses are in general low, but commodious; and some of the public buildings are handsome, yet not splendid or magnificent.

For twenty-five years the limits of the colony were occasionally extended, but not beyond forty miles to the westward. At length, in the year 1813, when a favorable report of the country situated beyond the Blue Mountains had been given by Mr. Evans, who had ventured to explore a passage over them, governor Mac-Quarie and other gentlemen resolved to make a personal survey. A new road was previously formed by the convicts, who volunteered their services, and were employed for six months in the laborious work. About sixteen miles from Emu Ford, the lofty ornaments of the forest gave way to stunted trees, and the gentle slope yielded to mountainous ruggedness. Ten miles farther, an extensive plain appeared, constituting the summit of the principal mountain. On the south-west side of this plain, called the King's Table-Land, at the bottom of abrupt precipices, a romantic glen was discovered. The ridge which forms one boundary of this glen terminates in a precipice of the height of 676 feet, down which the road had been recently conducted with great skill. The valley below this descent consists not only of good pasture land, but of soil fit for cultivation. Several rivers, not indeed very considerable, were observed as the party proceeded, with extensive and fertile plains along their banks. After a continuance of the journey through a succession of hills and vales, the exploration ceased at the distance of one hundred miles from the Ford, or 140 from Sydney.

A river navigable to a great extent being the chief *desideratum* in the opinion of the colonists, captain Flinders explored various parts of the country in the hope of finding such an addition to the other advantages

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of New South-Wales; but, after a diligent search, he declared it to be an ascertained fact, that no river of importance intersected the eastern coast between 24 and 39 degrees of southern latitude; but, notwithstanding this peremptory decision, Mr. Oxley, surveyor-general of the colony, discovered in 1824 the Brisbane river, the largest stream of fresh water yet found in New South-Wales, four hundred miles to the northward of Port-Jackson, with a rich soil upon its banks, and fine opportunities of cultivation. This discovery was the more agreeable, as great disappointment had attended his survey of the rivers Lachlan and Mac-Quarie, which were found to terminate suddenly in swamps or shoal lakes. The principal settlement, near the latter river, is Bathurst; but it is an ill-built town, the houses (from the scarcity of wood) being in general constructed of turf, and roofed with straw or reeds. On the banks of the same stream, eighty miles beyond Bathurst, the town of Wellington has since been erected, and is now thriving.

After captain Flinders had examined a great part of the coast of New-Holland, captain Philip King was commissioned to complete the survey, and for four years he diligently persevered in that laborious and perilous employment. In sailing to the north, along the eastern coast, he did not observe, between the latitude of 22 degrees and Torres-Strait, for the space of 700 miles, any thing like a considerable river or inlet; and, within that distance, the soil was in general very shallow, and the trees were small and stunted, except about the 17th degree, where the country was well wooded, and an air of fertility appeared.

Near the North-Cape the gulf of Carpentaria begins, which, he says, is about 400 miles *deep* (he means *long*) and 300 broad. The eastern side is low and sandy; the western has many fine harbours, and is bordered by some large islands. The Wellesley isles, at the end of the gulf, abound with iron ore, but their soil is very unfruitful. Between Cape Wesel and Cape Van-Diemen, is a river to which the captain gave the name of Liverpool, and which he ascended for forty miles without finding a pleasant country or a fertile soil. He saw many alligators in this part of his progress, and a few birds, particularly a species of heron. To the westward of this river are the Goulburn isles, in some of which the fierce natives attacked his party, but with little effect. Near these islands he was surprised by the appearance of a fleet of Malay proas from Macassar, fishing along the coast. M. de Freycinet met with a similar flota, and found that the voyage was annual, and that the visitants were generally involved in hostilities with the natives.

Near the western extremity of the northern coast is a deep opening (called, by the Dutch, Van-Diemen's Bay), which the captain found to be an extensive strait, separating two large islands from the main-land. In this strait is a considerable gulf, at the end of which he found several rivers, meandering through a vast extent of low level land. Proceeding to the southward, he reached Cambridge gulf, near which he saw bold precipitous ranges of detached hills, rising from a low plain; and, near one of the inlets in which this gulf terminates, he descried a quadrangular fortress-like mass of hills, so strong by nature as to be seemingly impregnable. He afterwards sailed along a low sandy coast to the North-West Cape, between which and Dampier's Archipelago he observed a groupe of rocky barren isles, called the Montebello Islands by commodore Baudin; and he was convinced that "these were neither more nor less than that redoubtable danger in the Indian ocean, the Trial Rocks." From that cape the western coast extends for more than 750 miles. It is fronted by a rocky shore, and is inaccessible to boats, except in a few

places. The only openings in it are Black-Swan River and Shark Bay: the former is an unimportant stream, and, in the neighbourhood of each, the country bears an unpromising aspect.

The captain gives the following summary of the natural productions of the great line of coast which he visited. "There is a great plenty of fish in all parts; but they are not very easily caught with hook and line. Turtles are also abundant within the tropic and of large size; they are both of the green and the hawk's bill species, and, from the latter, great quantities of tortoise-shell might be procured. Water-snakes were seen in all parts near the coast; but I do not think they are venomous. The longest we saw did not measure more than four feet. Shell-fish seemed to abound, from the large quantities of broken shells that were thrown upon the beaches. At Shark Bay, we found great numbers of various kinds; and on the reefs of the eastern coast there is also abundance, but not in any great variety. The only land animals seen by us were kangaroos, kangaroo-rats, dogs, the opossum, and a large vampire. The traces of emus were met with, but the birds themselves were not seen. There are no edible fruits of any importance. The cabbage-palm and the betel-nut were occasionally met with, and the sago-palm was abundant on all parts of the northern coast. Two species of nutmeg were found, but they were not fit for use. We saw no trees fit for naval purposes, except in the vicinity of the tropic, on the eastern coast, where the Norfolk-Island pines grow, but not to large dimensions. In appearance they seem not worth a trial; but experience has fully proved their value as masts, provided that a tree be chosen of the exact size of the spar wanted; for it loses its strength by reducing it."

With regard to the characters of those colonists who were convicts, it may be observed, that the majority are more orderly in their demeanor, and less immoral in their conduct, than might have been expected. It may be said, indeed, that they are over-awed by the commanding air and necessary strictness of the government to which they are subjected: yet they claim some merit for their forbearance and moderation. Some have occasionally been favored with small grants of land in consideration of their good behaviour, instead of continuing to cultivate the public land, or of doing other work by the governor's order. The free settlers also encourage them by taking the most steady and industrious of them into their service. Undoubtedly, a complete reformation is retarded by the occasional accession of new convicts; yet the ratio of amendment appears to be progressive.

The savages of New-Holland form a remarkable variety of our species, if they do not constitute a peculiar race. Various attempts have been made by philosophers to classify mankind; but scientific men, like ordinary mortals, sometimes differ widely in their opinions and conclusions. The most philosophical division of man seems to be that of professor Blumenbach, into the Caucasian (the branch to which the Europeans belong), the Mongolian, the Ethiopian, the Malayan, and the American; but even this is liable to considerable objections. Differences in the formation of the skull, in the shape or size of the body, the complexion, language, genius, and habits, have led these investigators into a variety of arrangements, some of which are arbitrary and fanciful, while others are apparently well-founded. Without entering into a discussion of this kind, it will be sufficient to observe, with regard to the natives of Australasia, that they seem to belong to the Ethiopian race, though they have in some respects degenerated from the old standard. They are nearly as black as negroes, thin, and ill-made; their noses are flat,

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their nostrils and mouths wide, their lips thick, their eyes deeply fixed in their large heads. When they were first visited by our countrymen, they had a strange custom of extracting one of the teeth from the upper jaw, as if they had no occasion for it, and many used to perforate the cartilage of the nose, and thrust a large bone or reed through it, which some of captain Cook's sailors humorously called their *sprit-sail-yard*: it was also common for the women to cut off two joints of the little finger; but these practices are now declining. Their minds are as ill-constituted as their bodies are unhandsome; for, though they have quick conceptions and ready powers of imitation, they have no reflection, judgement, or foresight. "The most persevering attempts (says Mr. Field, the chief judge of the colony) have been made to induce them to settle, and avail themselves of the arts of life; but they cannot be fixed, nor is it possible by any kindness to attach them. Many of them have been brought up by us from infancy in our nurseries, and yet the woods have seduced them at maturity, and at once elicited the savage instincts of finding their food in the trees, and their paths through the forests,—propensities which civil education had only smothered.—They have no wants but such as are immediate; and they have therefore never become either builders, or cultivators, or mechanics, or mariners; nor had they ever any civil government or religious superstition, like the Otaheiteans, the Sandwich islanders, and New-Zealanders."

It is remarkable that these savages, though one would think that they must be vexed or depressed (as even their superiors, the South-sea islanders, evidently are) by the consideration of their great inferiority to Europeans, have no ideas of that kind. Some will attribute this to stupidity or apathy, while others may think that it borders on manliness of spirit. They bear themselves erect, and address you with confidence, always with good humor, and often with grace. The naked, the houseless Australasian, would approach the proudest and most powerful despot on a footing of presumed equality. But they are not all naked and houseless; for, though the majority consider clothing as an useless encumbrance, those who wander about the south-west coast wear a mantle of kangaroo-skin, and some of those who occasionally associate with Europeans wear boughs round their waists; and, while many are content with the shelter of a hollow tree, others construct huts of sticks, with roofs of bark.

Hunting and fishing are their chief employments. They make use of a spear in both these occupations, and sometimes use it with great dexterity, after fixing it in a throwing-stick. They are also navigators; but their canoes are wretchedly fabricated, and some, in their aquatic excursions, use only a mangrove log, on which they sit astride, moving it along by paddling.

They are in general cheerful, and fond of social converse; and among their amusements there is one which strangers witness with some degree of interest. This is the *corrobory* or night-dance, which is executed in very good time, and in a tune not unpleasing. The vocal part of the entertainment is performed by several men and women who do not join in the dance. One of the band beats time by knocking one stick against another. The music begins with a high note, and gradually sinks to the octave, whence it rises again immediately to the top. The dancers breathe in chorus like pavers; the general step consists in opening the knees with a convulsive shake to the music; and the dance, in its progress, works up the performers to an enthusiastic fervor.

To the south of New-Holland is an island (separated only by a strait

50 miles wide) which the Dutch first discovered. Tasman, in the year 1642, took temporary possession of a bay, and gave to the country, in honor of the governor of Batavia, the appellation of Van Diemen's Land. A favorable report of the island induced the governor of New South-Wales (the British division of New-Holland), to give directions, in 1803, for the colonisation of this spot. The colony did not rapidly advance to a flourishing state; for, so late as fifteen years from the foundation of Hobart-town, the capital, the houses in general were little better than miserable huts or cabins; but it is now a more considerable town than could have been expected from the slowness of its progress. It stands about ten miles from the mouth of the Derwent, near a mountain which rises to the height of 4000 feet above the level of the sea. Several fine rivulets flow down its sides, by one of which the town is pleasantly intersected. Mills for grinding corn have been erected on this stream, affording to the inhabitants a material advantage over those of Sydney, who use wind-mills for that purpose, and also over the people of the inland towns and districts of New South-Wales, who usually have recourse to hand-mills. The town is now sufficiently large to accommodate 2000 persons, and it is progressively extending its limits. The new colonists add brick houses of considerable elevation to the low and insubstantial dwellings of the former settlers, who are thus encouraged to take an early opportunity of improving their habitations. Most of the houses have gardens, which are kept in a good state of cultivation; and, if those fine fruits which require a very warm sun are not brought to perfection, wholesome vegetables and common fruits are reared in sufficient quantities for domestic consumption. In the northern part of the island is Port-Dalrymple, a good harbour. Launceston, connected with this port, was the chief seat of the government for this division; but that dignity is now possessed by George-town, which is rapidly increasing in extent and importance.

With regard to the general surface and appearance of the island, Mr. Evans informs us, that it is "richly diversified by ranges of moderate hills and broad valleys, presenting the most agreeable scenes, and replete with the useful products of a rich soil and fine climate. The hills are for the greater part wooded, and from their summits are to be seen levels of good pasture land, thinly interspersed with trees. These plains are generally of the extent of 8 or 10,000 acres; and this description is to be considered as common to the whole island."—He also observes, that the scenery along the whole course of the Derwent is beautiful, and in some places highly romantic and picturesque. Lofty perpendicular rocks, rich groves of ever-greens, luxuriant meadows, and numerous farms in a good state of cultivation, tend to vary the prospect along its banks. Ships of any size may find good anchorage in every part, from its southern entrance to twelve miles above Hobart-town. Indeed, whatever is connected with the Derwent seems to offer ample rewards to settlers.

The climate is more temperate than that of the colonised parts of New-Holland, and more congenial to the constitutions of British emigrants. The intermittent fever, so common in an uncleared country, is here unknown; yet some disorders must be expected to diffuse their occasional ravages. Those which are most frequent are the rheumatism, consumption, and dysentery. This island is destitute of cedar, mahogany, and rose-wood; but the inhabitants find good substitutes in the black wood and the Huon-river pine: the latter, which resembles the yew-tree, affords timber of great durability. The harvests of grain are very abundant, and the wheat is superior to that of the main-land. The natural grasses

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possess such nutritive qualities, that the cattle attain a much larger size than those of the older colony, and they are also more prolific, particularly the ewes. The wool, indeed, is not so fine; but, by the introduction of the Merino sheep, it has been so far meliorated as to become a valuable article of exportation.

This spot is not infested by many beasts of prey. That canine species, which is so destructive to the sheep of the other colony, does not exist on this island; and its only fierce and mischievous quadruped is an animal of the panther kind, which is as dreadfully hostile to flocks as the European wolf, although it rarely attacks human beings.

The population of an increasing colony cannot be precisely stated. About 1000 persons formed the number that commenced, in 1788, the settlement at Port-Jackson: the amount, in 1804, exceeded 7400, the settlement in Van-Diemen's Land being included: in 1810, it nearly reached 12000, with the soldiery: in 1817, there were found to be 20,328 persons, among whom were only 6297 convicts; and we have reason to believe that, at the present time, there are not less than 35,000, of which number perhaps about 10,000 occupy Van-Diemen's Land.

NEW-GUINEA was supposed to be the northern coast of an extensive continent, and to be joined to New-Holland; but captain Cook discovered a strait between them, which runs north-east; and thus it was found to be a long narrow island. The country consists of a mixture of hills and valleys, interspersed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, and most of the trees, shrubs, and plants, which are usually found in the islands of the Pacific ocean. The savage inhabitants, called the Papuas, appear to be of the same race with the New-Hollanders.

To the north-east of New-Guinea is NEW-BRITAIN, a hilly and well-wooded island, furnished with fine rivers, and exhibiting in the valleys and plains an aspect of fertility. The people are of the same race with those of New-Guinea.

NEW-IRELAND extends in length, from the north-west to the south-east, about two hundred and fifty miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of animals, and also of trees and plants. The inhabitants are black and woolly-headed, like the negroes of Guinea; but have not their flat noses and thick lips.

The PALAOS OR PELEW ISLANDS were probably known to the Spaniards at a distant period; but from a report, among the neighbouring isles, of their being inhabited by a savage race of cannibals, it appears that there never had been the least communication between them and any of the Europeans, until a British vessel was wrecked on one of them in 1783. These islands are long but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood; the climate is temperate and agreeable; the lands produce sugar-canes, yams, cocoa-nuts, plantains, bananas, oranges, and lemons; and the surrounding seas abound with the finest and greatest variety of fish. The natives are stout and well-made, above the middle stature: their complexions are of a far deeper color than what is understood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men in general appear without clothing, 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. Their government is monarchical, and the king is absolute; but his power is usually exercised more with the mildness of a father than with the rigor of a sovereign.

To the west of the Pelew Islands, at a considerable distance, are the CAROLINES; the largest of which, named Hogoleu, is 80 miles in length, and 35 in breadth. The inhabitants of some of these isles resemble those of the Philippines: in others, particularly Ulea, they evince a greater conformity with the people of Pelew. They seem to enjoy some regularity of government; and, though they have no exterior worship, they listen to the counsels of their priests, and believe in a future state. They have an idea of astronomy, which they properly consider as useful in navigation. In boat-building they are more skilful than in the construction of houses, the latter being in general wretched huts, while their barks are neat and commodious. Of dancing they are as fond as the French or the negroes; and they also amuse themselves with warlike exercises, when they are not engaged in actual hostilities.

POLYNESIA.

UNDER this head we arrange the multitude of islands dispersed over the North and South Pacific, without including those which are at an inconsiderable distance from the continental coasts. The largest of these are the two islands which compose the country called New-Zealand. The Dutch, having discovered this spot, in 1642, gave it the name of Staten-Land; and they supposed it to be a portion of a southern continent; but captain Cook found a strait, about 13 miles broad, which separates the northern from the southern part. Of the two islands, one is for the most part mountainous, rather barren, and thinly inhabited; but the other is comparatively fertile, and has a better appearance. From the vegetable found here, the winters seem to be milder than those in England, and the summers not hotter, though more equably warm. Here are forests of vast extent, filled with very large trees; and among the plants are bindweed, nightshade, speedwell, sow-thistle, virgin's-bower, euphorbia, crane's-bill, cudweed, knot-grass, and rushes: but the species of each are different from those of Europe. A plant grows in the maritime parts, more particularly in the southern island, producing a fine silky flax, from which the natives manufacture large garments by the process of knotting. The leaves of the philadelphus form a tolerable substitute for tea, and plants resembling celery and scurvy-grass are good ingredients in soup or in pottage. No quadrupeds, except rats and dogs, were observed by the first visitants; but various animals have since been introduced from Europe. The natives are stout and robust, and equal in stature to the tallest Europeans. Their color 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. They smear their heads and faces with red earth, and hang in their ears beads, pieces of jasper, or bits of cloth. With regard to dress, it appears that the men do not deem it absolutely necessary either for warmth or for decency; yet they usually wear some covering. It consists of a mat made of flax, which is very fine and silky, and skilfully woven by the women. It is thrown over the shoulders, and another mat, of the same substance and texture, is fastened round the waist by a belt. In winter, at night, or in wet weather, they use a very coarse kind of mat, which is very warm, and impervious to rain, and so large as to envelope the whole body. The dress of the women is the same as that of the men; and they are

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slightly tattooed on the upper lip, in the centre of the chin, and above the eyebrows. Some of them have a few lines upon their legs, others upon their breasts, and some are tattooed nearly as much as the men. Many wear necklaces of sharks' teeth, or bunches of long beads, and some have triangular aprons, adorned with feathers or shells, fastened about the waist with a double or treble row of cords.

These islanders are ingenious in various arts; they are good weavers, and construct boats with some degree of skill; but we cannot highly praise their architectural dexterity. Some of their store-houses, indeed, are not ill-built, and their ornamental carving is curious; but their dwelling-houses are neither substantial nor commodious. The houses of the chiefs are built upon the ground, not (like the store-houses) upon stages, or posts floored over; the floor and the space in front are neatly paved; but they are so low that few of the occupants can stand upright in them, and the small sliding-door of entrance is the only aperture for light or air. The verandahs and carved work, however, being painted red, have a showy appearance. The huts of the inferior people are wretched, being very little better than shells; but the practice of sleeping in the open air is so common, that it must be very bad weather that can force them to seek the shelter of their houses.

When we affirm that the men of New-Zealand are guilty of the enormity of cannibalism (for neither the spirit of our navigators, nor the remonstrances of our missionaries, have enforced the suppression of this abominable custom), it may readily be concluded that their dispositions are ferocious. They are passionate and vindictive toward their own sex, and frequently treat the mild and patient females with great brutality; yet they are not altogether destitute of natural affection or of social feelings, and have some notions of religion and morality.

The government is aristocratical, being chiefly conducted by the chieftains and the elders. It might be supposed, from the fierceness of the people, that they would not tamely submit to arbitrary sway; yet, like the Turks, they acquiesce in it, being apparently satisfied with being allowed to tyrannise over their families, and to exercise cruelty upon those enemies against whom they are desired to take the field. When the chiefs prepare for an expedition of this kind, the war-dance is ordered to be practised. In the common dance, there is a striking air of violence; but the war-dance is still more accordant to the ferocious character of the nation. "It is perhaps (says captain Cruise) as frightful an exhibition as can be witnessed. The performers, who are entirely naked, assemble in an irregular groupe, and jump perpendicularly from the ground, as high and as frequently as possible, uttering a most piercing and savage yell. As the dance continues, their countenances become violently distorted; and they appear under the influence of an ungovernable phrensy, which, they suppose, inspires them with courage to attempt the most daring actions."

Proceeding from NEW ZEALAND to the north-west, we find NEW CALEDONIA, which is above 230 miles in length, but not more than 30 in its utmost breadth. It exhibits a mountainous aspect, and the greater part of the country is apparently not very fertile; yet it affords the bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, the sugar-cane, and some other useful vegetables. The complexions of the inhabitants are nearly black: their manners are rude and uncouth, and their dispositions ferocious. Only a broad leaf, or a piece of bark, partially hides the nakedness of the men; and a short petticoat of bark contributes to secure the decency of the women. Their huts are in the form of bee-hives, and are nearly destitute of furniture:

some are encompassed by neat palisades; and they are not all scattered over the country; but many are collected so as to form villages. It is said that these savages sometimes make war on the neighbouring tribes, not so much from motives of animosity or rivalry, as for the purpose of satiating their hunger with human flesh.

To the north of NEW CALEDONIA are the NEW HEBRIDES, which are in general mountainous. They abound with wood and water, and with the usual products of the tropical islands. The natives of some of these islands are apparently of the Ethiopian race, while, in others, the people seem to be of Malay origin.

Directing our course to the eastward, we meet with an insular groupe, called by captain Cook the FRIENDLY ISLANDS, on account of the friendship which appeared to subsist among the inhabitants, and also for their courteous behaviour to strangers. As this character does not properly belong to them, (for they are almost as fierce as the New-Zealanders,) the name of Tonga, the most flourishing island, has since been given to the whole groupe. This island, called Amsterdam by the Dutch, by whom it was first discovered, is about fifty-five miles in circumference, and the land is nearly of an uniform height, not in any part more than 80 feet above the level of the sea. It is regularly laid out in plantations; for the people are diligent cultivators. Their fields of yams and plantains are of great extent; and of the latter they make a sort of bread, by putting them under ground before they are ripe, and keeping them until they ferment, when they are taken up and formed into balls. Their habitations in general are merely thatched roofs or sheds, supported by posts and rafters, and closed on the weather side with strong mats, or branches of the cocoa-nut tree, plaited or interwoven with each other. The furniture consists of wooden stools, which serve for pillows; of baskets, in which combs, fish-hooks, and tools, are kept: and of bowls, in which they prepare *kava*, an intoxicating liquor, from a species of pepper-plant. Their canoes are made of the bread-fruit tree, with great neatness and skill; and the double ones are even fit for distant navigation. Their military weapons are clubs, spears, and darts. The amusements are dancing both by day and night, singing, playing upon a bamboo flute, spear-throwing, wrestling, boxing, and shooting with bows and arrows at rats, which the common people frequently eat.

The people of the Tonga islands are generally of the middle stature; their figures are strongly made, and well proportioned, and their features are not displeasing. Their complexions are usually a shade deeper than the copper brown; but many have an olive hue. Both sexes dress nearly in the same manner; the chief garment, for those who are not of the lowest order, is a long and wide piece of cloth or matting, drawn round the body, and hanging from the breast half-way down the legs. The common people are content with small pieces, and many have only a kind of sash, made of the leaves of plants. The men are tattooed, but not the women. The latter are the chief manufacturers not only of apparel, but of other articles of ordinary use; and the mats which they make for a variety of purposes are not merely fabricated in a very neat manner, but sometimes in a way that is tastefully ornamental. Their decorations for the ears, neck, breast, and arms, are usually made by the men from the teeth of sharks, the bones of birds, shells, &c. The men are also the cooks, and this branch of business is considered as a regular profession, being carried to the extent of preparing between thirty and forty different kinds of dishes.

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In most of the islands, the government is monarchical, and the various ranks under royalty are four, namely, the chiefs or nobles, the ministers or advisers of those great men, the superintendants of the public morals, and the bulk of the people. There are some laws for the security of property; but the general government is arbitrary. A belief in a plurality of gods, and an idea of the existence of the soul in a more refined state after its separation from the body, mark the prevailing religion; and the priests are supposed to be divinely inspired, but they do not officiate in regular worship. A shocking part of their system consists in human sacrifices. Offerings of the produce of the earth to the gods may be excused, though unnecessary; but there is no excuse for murdering children on the altar of superstition, in the hope of promoting the recovery of a chief from illness, or for strangling the widow of a man of high rank on the day of her husband's funeral, or for sacrificing prisoners of war. These practices, however, are declining, as is also, we believe, the strange custom of the *taboo*. This implies the prohibition of any thing in consequence of a supposed connexion with religion. For instance, intrusion into a consecrated place is forbidden; the touch of a chieftain's dead body, the eating of certain kinds of food at particular times, and other acts unobjectionable in themselves, are supposed to require penance or expiation before the reputed offender can mingle as before with society.

These islands have a fine climate, and are not infested with wild beasts; and it is said that they have no venomous creatures of the insect or reptile kinds, except scorpions and centipedes. Among the birds are parrots, cuckoos, king-fishers, herons, curlews, land-rails, swallows, pigeons, and plovers.

To the north-west of the Tonga islands are those which are inhabited by the Feejis, an ingenious but savage race, fond of war, and known to be addicted to the practice of cannibalism, and to the most cruel acts of superstition. Some geographers have reckoned the Feejis among the offspring of the Malays; but this appears to be an erroneous opinion, as they bear strong traces of Ethiopian extraction.

THE NAVIGATORS' ISLANDS, which were discovered by M. de Bougainville, and explored by the unfortunate Pérouse, are ten in number, situated to the northward of the Tonga islands. Opoun, Leone, and Faufoue, are small; but Maouna, Oyolava, and Pola, may be reckoned among the largest and finest 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, banana, guava, and orange. The inhabitants are a strong and handsome race. Their usual height is five feet ten inches, or six feet; but their stature is less astonishing than the colossal proportions of the different parts of their frames. The men have their bodies painted or tattooed, so that they appear at a distance as if they were clothed, though they go almost naked. They have only a girdle of sea-weeds reaching to their knees, and thus appear like 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 women are tall, slender, and not without grace, though in general disgusting from their gross effrontery and indecency. The islanders 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 fine and compact species of basalt, in the form of an adze. They manufacture good mats, and some paper-stuffs. They are almost

continually on the water, and do not even go from one village to another on foot, but perform all their journeys in canoes; on which account M. de Bougainville gave them the appellation of *navigators*. In their dispositions they appear to be thievish, treacherous, and ferocious. The people of Maouana gave a proof of their barbarity, by the wanton murder of the captain and ten other Frenchmen, belonging to one of Pêrouse's ships.

OTAHEITE, called also King George's Island, was discovered by captain Wallis, in 1767. It consists of two peninsulas, of a form nearly circular, joined by a narrow isthmus in the middle, and is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form several excellent bays and harbours. The face of the country is very extraordinary; for a border of low land almost entirely encompasses each peninsula, and behind it the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle of each division, and these form mountains that may be seen at the distance of thirty leagues. The soil, except upon the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by many rivulets, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, forming the most delightful groves. Between the ridges and the sea, the border is in few places more than a mile and a half broad; and these parts, with some of the valleys, are almost the only spots that are inhabited.

The people, who are of the Malay race, have clear olive complexions: the men are strong, well-limbed, and finely shaped; the women are of an inferior stature, but handsome and very amorous; and both sexes, like those of the Tonga islands, are particularly attentive to personal cleanliness. 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 in general are oblong, with a shelving roof supported by three parallel rows of posts, one row on each side, and one in the middle. The usual height within is about nine feet, and the eaves on each side reach within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the rest is open, no part being enclosed 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. It must be observed, however, that many houses have been built on this island with greater substantiality and convenience since the missionaries and other Europeans have extended their connexions with the nations of the Pacific.

The inhabitants of this and the neighbouring islands, when they were first visited by Europeans, had no tools made of metal; and those which they used were formed of stones, or bones. They had no tame animals except hogs, dogs, and poultry; but the English have since supplied them with bulls, cows, sheep, goats, horses, 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.

In many other countries the men cut their hair short, and the women pride themselves on its length; but here the women 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. The youth of both sexes, when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, are tattooed on several parts of the body, and in various figures. Their principal manufacture is their cloth, of which there are three sorts, made of the bark of three kinds of trees. The finest and whitest species is made of the paper-mulberry-tree, and this is chiefly

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worn by persons of distinction. Another considerable manufacture is matting, some of which is finer 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.

Among the Otaheiteans, a subordination is established, which resembles the early state of the European nations under the feudal system. When a general attack is made upon the island, or when it is merely threatened, every district is obliged to furnish its proportion of warriors for the common defence. Their weapons are slings, which they use with great dexterity, and clubs, about six or seven feet long, made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are constructed for warlike operations; and the new ones are more skilfully constructed than their former vessels.

With regard to their religion, it appears that they adore a Supreme God, and at the same time acknowledge a number of subordinate deities. They believe the soul to be immaterial and immortal; that, during the pangs of death, it flutters about the lips, then ascends, and is eaten by the Deity; that it continues in this state for some time; after which it takes its passage to a certain place, destined to receive the souls of human beings, and has existence in eternal night, or rather in a kind of dawn or twilight. Their only places of worship were the *morais*, or receptacles of the dead. Here they offered fruit and animal food to the Deity, and sometimes sacrificed their fellow-creatures, chiefly criminals, for the same purpose of propitiation. But, in consequence of the zealous exhortations of the missionaries, who have introduced Christianity among them, these practices are falling into disuse, if they are not yet abolished; and the crime of infanticide, so prevalent among the profligate associations devoted to promiscuous concubinage, is said to have yielded in a great measure to the same pious influence.

The chief SOCIETY ISLANDS, beside Otaheite (which some reckon among that groupe), are Huaheine, Ulietea, Otaha, and Bolabola. The first is about 30 leagues to the north-west of Otaheite, and its productions are the same; but vegetation appears to be more forward by a month. The inhabitants seem to be more stoutly made than those of Otaheite; the women are fairer; but, in dress, language, and almost every other circumstance, they are the same. Their houses are neat, and they have boat-houses which are remarkably large. Ulietea is eight leagues to the south-west of Huaheine, and is a much larger island, but is neither so fertile nor so populous. The principal refreshments to be procured here are plantains, cocoa-nuts, yams, hogs, and fowls. Otaha is divided from Ulietea by a strait, which, in the narrowest part, is not above two miles broad. This island affords two good harbours, and its produce is similar, in species and quality, to 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 small islands, and is distinguished by a lofty mountain in the centre. In one respect, it resembles our colony in New South-Wales, as the earliest inhabitants are said to have been banished malefactors.

About 700 miles to the south-east of Otaheite, captain Vancouver discovered an island called Oparo. "Its principal character (he says) is a cluster of high, craggy mountains, forming in several places most romantic pinnacles, with perpendicular cliffs nearly from their summits to the sea." The tops of six of the highest hills seemed to him to be fortified places, each having a sort of block-house with palisades. The inhabitants

whom he saw, were exceedingly well made, and had cheerful open countenances; they had no other covering than a wreath round the waist, formed of a long-leaved plant, and were not tattooed. Their canoes were neatly made; much better, indeed, than could have been expected from the wretched tools used in the construction of them.

EASTER ISLAND is 35 miles in circumference, and stands nearly at an equal distance from the coast of Chile and from Otaheite. It contains some remarkable monuments, consisting of pyramidal heaps of stones, and, on scattered platforms, are colossal statues, or rather busts, probably erected in honor of the most distinguished chieftains. It has been supposed by some, that these figures were the work of men superior in mechanic skill, to the present race of inhabitants: but others, not without reason, think that the latter are fully equal to the task. Their plantations are well managed; they regularly cultivate the yam, banana, and sugar-cane; and they appear to be acute and intelligent.

Of the islands called the **MARQUESAS**, situated to the north-east of the Society Isles, the most considerable are, *Dominica*, *Christina*, and *Pedro*. The first is about 40 miles in circuit, and its inhabitants, in language, manners, and religion, resemble those of Otaheite; but the women are more distinguished by personal beauty, and some of them are nearly as fair as Europeans. Both *Dominica* and *Christina* seem to be volcanic islands: they abound with rugged hills, rising in ridges directly from the sea, and separated by deep valleys, which, as well as the sides of the hills, are clothed with fine trees.

Passing to the northern latitude of 20 degrees, we arrive at **OWHYHEE** or **HAWAII**, which is about 275 miles in circumference. This and ten other islands form a fine groupe, known by the appellation of the **SANDWICH ISLANDS**. The climate is less sultry than that of the West Indies, and the violent winds and hurricanes which agitate and ravage that part of the world, do not here prevail. The vegetable productions are nearly the same with those of the *Tonga* and *Society Islands*. The quadrupeds found by the English were hogs, dogs, and rats; and to these the strangers added, from their own stores, the horse, the bull, the cow, the sheep, goat, rabbit, and mouse. The bird of Paradise, and other beautiful birds of New Guinea, are not found on any of these islands; and, though the birds are numerous, the variety is not great. Some are only occasional visitors, while others are residents. The tropic-bird is very common, and its beautiful rose-colored tail-feathers are highly valued by the natives, who pull them from the birds as they sit in their nests. Fly-catchers, thrushes, rails, owls, noddies, plovers, pigeons, and birds from which red feathers are procured, are also frequently found here. The uho, though its chief hue is black, has under its wings and at the tail some yellow feathers, which are greatly admired as appendages to clokes and other articles of dress. The insects are few, and small copper-colored lizards are sometimes seen; but there are no snakes or serpents. Sharks are too common along the coast; the bonito, flying-fish, red and grey mullets, and pearl oysters, abound; and corals and zoophytes vary the maritime scene. In a geological point of view, the islands may generally be described as a groupe of volcanoes, rising amidst coral banks and reefs.

On the island of *Hawaii* are some remarkable mountains, the most elevated of which is *Mouna Keah*. This is about 16,000 feet high, and its summit is never entirely free from snow. Its eruptions have for a

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long time ceased; but the volcano of Peli, on the flank of Mouna Roa, is frequently and dreadfully active. From the edge of the crater, there is a downward view for more than 1300 feet, over rocks of lava and masses of sulphur, to a rugged plain, where many cones, raised by the action of the fire below, throw up columns of flame, while floods of fire slowly wind through ashes. Within the sunken plain, the stream from below, by its condensation, forms pools, to which wild birds resort, and in which the water is fresh and cool.

The best harbour at Hawaii is Byron bay: it is not, indeed, perfectly easy of access, but it leads into an extensive and safe basin. The scenery about it is beautiful: sloping lawns, decorated with orchards of bread-fruit and palms, extend upwards for some miles, and thick woods then succeed, and clothe the sides of the mountains.

The north-east coast of Hawaii is very remarkable. From Toarra point the land gradually rises to lofty, abrupt, dark-colored cliffs, between which numerous cascades pour down in every direction. This kind of scenery continues for about ten miles, when it terminates in two valleys of extraordinary richness and beauty.

The chief town in this island is Kairua, where the governor occupies a very good house, built in the European style, near a fort which has superseded a famous morai. This town has a population of 3000. The neighbouring country is covered with lava of different ages, and wears a dark and forbidding aspect; but the beach is adorned with cocoa-nut and oil-nut trees, and a distant valley is fertile in *taro*, a species of yam, which is found very useful for sustenance.

It was on this island that captain Cook, in the year 1779, lost his life. He entertained (not without reason) a favorable opinion of the general characters and dispositions of the islanders: but, by trusting too much to his influence over them (for they seemed to regard him as a demi-god), he involved himself in a fatal quarrel. A cutter having been stolen, he laid an embargo on the flotilla of canoes, and was proceeding to take the king on board as an hostage; but, when the natives resisted the attempt, he gave up the point. They did not seem disposed to offer him any personal injury, before it was reported that one of their chiefs had been shot by a boat's crew; then they attacked him with stones; and, when he had killed one of the assailants, he was stabbed in the back, and pierced with many wounds, to the great regret not only of his countrymen, but even of the islanders themselves, when cool reflection succeeded the transient burst of indignation.

The three voyages of this celebrated navigator round the world may here, not improperly, be noticed. In the first, he discovered the Society Islands, made a complete survey of New Zealand, and accurately examined the eastern coast of New Holland for the space of 2000 miles. In the second voyage, he solved the great problem of a southern continent, having traversed that hemisphere between the latitude of 40 and 70 degrees, in such a manner as not to leave the least probability of its existence; discovered the great island of New-Caledonia, and also Sandwich Land, which he considered as the *Thule* of the south, but which has lost that mark of distinction by the appearance of the South-Shetland Islands to subsequent navigators. The third voyage was ennobled by the discovery of the Sandwich Islands, by the exploration of the north-western coast of America for 3500 miles, and by the ascertainment of the proximity of the two great continents of Asia and America.

We ought to add, that, by his judicious precautions, he prevented the ravages of the scurvy in the vessels which he commanded, and convinced

the world of the possibility of preserving the health of seamen, in voyages of extraordinary duration, under every change of climate.

Next to Hawaii, the island of MOWEE, or MAUI, is the most populous of the whole groupe; and the district of Lahaina, in that island, is particularly fertile and picturesque, abounding with useful produce, and exhibiting the finest trees. In this neighbourhood, the practice of irrigation, as it seldom rains, is found essentially necessary; and therefore water is brought from the mountains in stone courses, which are carefully closed every evening. Few of the huts, in this part of the island, are more than ten feet long, eight feet wide, and six feet high; and through the very low door the owners are obliged to crawl. In the summer, indeed, these huts are not generally used as places of abode; for the people are then content with the shelter of the bread-fruit tree. A church has been here built for the use of the new Christians: its walls are formed of reeds, lined with broad woven leaves, and the leaf-covered roof is supported by strong poles. The chiefs have given a house and some land to the officiating minister, to whose exhortations the people listen with profound attention.

The seat of government for the Sandwich-island kingdom, is now at Honoruru, in the isle of OAHU. This town has some regular streets, a house built of stone for the court, and several very commodious wooden houses, the frames of which were imported from North-America; but the habitations in general are rudely constructed of poles fastened with cords made of the twisted fibres of various plants, and covered with broad leaves or a long kind of grass. Near the entrance of the harbour is a well-built fort, furnished with forty pieces of artillery, and there is a small pier to facilitate the unloading of vessels.

To this capital the remains of the king and queen of the Sandwich Islands were conveyed in a British vessel, in 1825, with a view of cementing, by an unusual mark of respect, the connexion which had already been formed between the governments. When captain Cook visited Hawaii, its sovereign was Terreeoboo or Teraiopu, who also claimed authority over other islands, but was checked in his ambition by the independent power of the chieftains. Kevalao, one of the sons of that prince, asserted his pretensions to the kingly power, but could not prevent the seizure of a part of the island by his cousin Tamehameha, an enterprising and aspiring chief. It is said that these competitors fought for seven days, in 1781, and the contest was then decided by the fall of Kevalao. On the arrival of captain Vancouver in 1792, both Hawaii and Maui were subject to the sway of Tamehameha; and he was then engaged in war with the kings of Taui and Oahu. In the hope of securing the favor of British navigators and traders, he made a formal cession of Hawaii to king George III., and from that time he continued to treat our countrymen with peculiar kindness and respect. He at length procured a considerable quantity of fire-arms and a number of schooners, and effected the subjugation of the whole groupe of islands. He improved the state of the country in point of agriculture, promoted the mechanic arts, encouraged Europeans to establish shops in his principal towns, and even sent out vessels to trade with China. To his temporal power he added the chief spiritual authority; and it is supposed that he meditated the subversion of idolatry, but delayed the accomplishment of his religious schemes, because he thought they required the most mature deliberation. After a long and certainly not inglorious reign, he died in 1819, sincerely lamented by his subjects. His son Iolani or Riho-Riho, unjustly stigmatised by the navigator Kotzebue

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as the most stupid of all brutes, succeeded him, and commenced his reign by an act of spirit and magnanimity. He repaired to the isle of Taui, crushed at once the competition of an ambitious chieftain, pardoned him, and made him his friend. He then deliberated on the state of religion, and resolved to desecrate or secularise the morais, destroy the idols, and put an end to the *taboo*. He was opposed in his views by an idolatrous chief, who even took up arms in the cause of reputed piety; but Karaimoku, the friend and minister of the late king, attacked and slew the rebel, whose war-god he carried off in triumph. The victorious commander and his brother Boki, soon after, declared themselves converts to Christianity, and were baptised by the chaplain of M. Freycinet, the French circumnavigator. Some missionaries from the United States were now allowed to erect a church in Oahu, to teach the doctrines of Christianity and the elements of literature, and to introduce the art of printing.

After governing for some years with reputation, Tamehameha II. (as Iolani was called), being jealous of the encroaching spirit of the Russians and the people of the United States, and desirous of securing the friendship of the British monarch, appointed Karaimoku regent of the islands, and undertook, with one of his wives, a voyage to England. The dignified strangers were received with every mark of attention and respect; but they did not live to revisit their native country. The queen sickened of the measles; the king, who had caught the infection, might perhaps have recovered; but her death gave him such a shock, that all the symptoms of his disorder were fatally aggravated. He died in 1824, in the 28th year of his age. He was succeeded by his brother Kiaukiaull, during whose minority the political ability of Karaimoku is still exercised.

The nature of the government requires some notice. The king has the right of imposing taxes for the maintenance of his household and the support of his dignity. He has the power of punishment, but is not authorised to take away the life of any one of his subjects for a supposed offence without the concurrence of twelve chiefs. He is not allowed to deprive the chiefs or the gentry, at his discretion, of the lands which they hold, but must suffer them to be inherited by the legitimate offspring of a deceased chief. The people are free, and not bound to the service of a particular chieftain, or proprietor of land. We are not precisely informed of the prevailing modes of punishment; but it appears that high treason is deemed a capital offence; for a chief who revolted from the minor king was condemned to death, and, being permitted to choose his manner of stoning for his crime, preferred drowning.

With regard to the personal appearance of the islanders, we may observe, that in general they exceed the middle size, and are stoutly but not finely formed, with long rather than round visages, nut-brown complexions, good eyes and teeth, and noses spread at the tip, in consequence perhaps of the usual mode of salutation, which is a mutual touch or pressure of noses. They usually wear a piece of coarse cloth, which passes between the legs, and is fastened round the waist; the women sometimes throw loose pieces of fine cloth over their shoulders, like the Otaheitean females; but some of the chiefs, and the women of rank, occasionally array themselves nearly in the European mode. Both sexes wear necklaces, consisting of small shells strung together; and bracelets of various kinds also adorn the women. Tatooing is not so common as it was; but it is still practised, and the punctures are neatly executed in various forms. Mats or short clokes are used by the men, as an indication that they are preparing for war: they are made of the leaves of the pandanus, and, like

their cloth, are beautifully worked in various patterns, and stained with different colors.

In point of intellect, they are by no means deficient: they have strong powers of observation, and many, by natural reasoning, can draw conclusions as justly as a pedantic logician. They are inquisitive, not out of idle curiosity, but from a real desire of information, and they generally retain what they learn. They are cheerful and good-humored, without being giddy or volatile; and are mild and affectionate in their social characters; yet they did not, until lately, treat their females with due respect and attention. The married persons, in general, are chaste; and even the unmarried are not so licentious as the inhabitants of many other islands in the Pacific. Among their amusements we may reckon games of chance, races between boys and girls,—the habit of swimming and diving amidst a violent surf with a floating-board attached to the body,—pugilism and the practice of wrestling,—also dancing and minstrelsy. In the two last diversions European refinement has little or no share; for the dancing, although it exhibits great activity of motion, chiefly consists in the advance of one step in the front or in the rear, to the right or the left, while two calabashes fastened together serve for a drum, and dogs' teeth, appended to the buskins of the dancer, rattle in unison; and the songs of the bards, though not unpleasing, do not display the force of talent, or the charms of elegance.

Such is our view of the world, such are our delineations of its wonderful scenes both in nature and in art, and such are our portraitures of its varied and multiplied inhabitants. We have concentrated, within the narrow limits of a compendium, the essence of a great number of copious volumes; and, as we have studiously aimed at truth and accuracy, we rest assured that the purity of our intentions will concur with the obvious difficulty of our task to suggest a ready excuse for errors and imperfections.

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Names of Pla

Abbeville,
Aberdeen,
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Acapulco,
Achen,
Adrianople,
Adriatic Sea,
Gulf of Venice,
Adventure Islands,
Agde,
Agen,
St. Agnes
(lights),
Agra,
Aix,

Albany,
Aleppo,
Alexandria,
Algier,
Amboyna,
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Ancona,

Angra,
Antioch,
Antwerp,
Archipelago,
Archangel,
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Athens,
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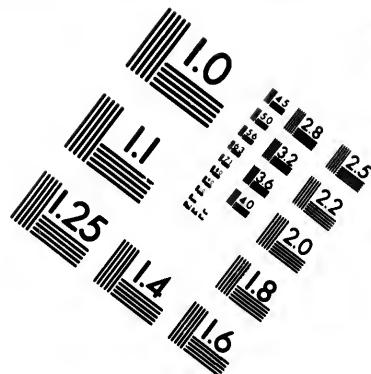
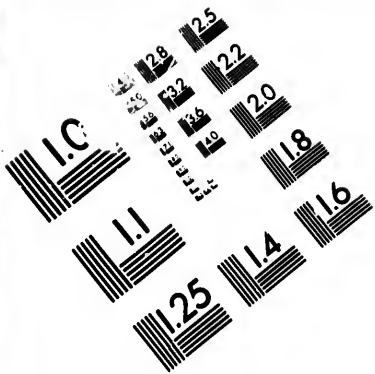
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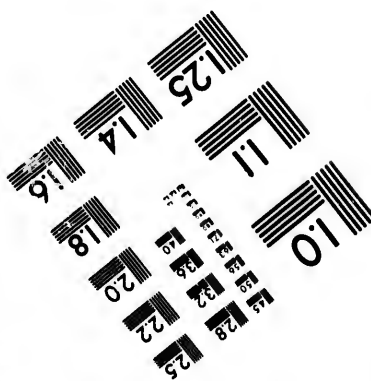
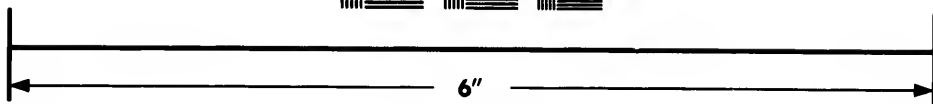
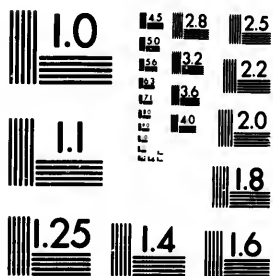
Containing the names and situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable places in the known World; collected from the most authentic Charts, Maps, and Observations.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries or Seas.	Quarter.	Latitude. Longitude.	
				D. M.	D. M.
Abbeville,	Somme,	France,	Europe	50-7 N.	1-50 E.
Aberdeen,	Aberdeenshire	Scotland,	Europe	57-22 N.	2-3 W.
Abo,	Finland,	Russia,	Europe	60-27 N.	22-13 E.
Acapulco,		Mexico,	N. Amer.	16-50 N.	99-46 W.
Achen,	Sumatra,	India,	Asia	5-22 N.	95-34 E.
Adrianople,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41-45 N.	26-27 E.
Adriatic Sea, or					
Gulfof Venice,	between Italy and Turkey,		Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Adventure Isle,		Pacific Ocean,		17-5 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),	Scilly Isles,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	49-56 N.	6-46 W.
Agra,	Agra,	India,	Asia	27-10 N.	77-56 E.
Aix,	Mouths of the Rhone,	France,	Europe	43-31 N.	5-8 E.
Albany,	New York,	United States,	N. Amer.	42-59 N.	73-30 W.
Aleppo,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	36-25 N.	37-10 E.
Alexandria,	Lower Egypt,		Africa	31-11 N.	30-10 E.
Algier,	Algier,	Barbary,	Africa	36-49 N.	3-30 E.
Amboyna,	Amboyna Isle,	India,	Asia	4-15 S.	127-25 E.
Amiens,	Somme,	France,	Europe	49-53 N.	2-18 E.
AMSTERDAM,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-21 N.	4-51 E.
— New,	Berbice,	Guiana,	America	6-20 N.	57-15 W.
Anamooka Isle.		S. Pac. Ocean		20-15 S.	174-31 W.
Ancona,	March of An- cona,	Italy,	Europe	43-37 N.	13-29 E.
Angra,	Tercera Isle,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-39 N.	27-12 W.
Antioch,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	36-10 N.	36-40 E.
Antwerp,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13 N.	4-23 E.
Archipelago,		Isl. of Greece,	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Archangel,	Archangel,	Russia,	Europe	64-34 N.	38-59 E.
Ascension Isle,		S. Atl. Ocean,	Africa	7-56 S.	14-0 W.
Astracan,	Astracan,	Russia,	Asia	46-5 N.	47-40 E.
Athens,	Livadia,	Turkey,	Europe	38-5 N.	23-52 E.
St. Augustin,	East Florida,	United States,	N. Amer.	30-8 N.	81-35 W.
St. Augustin,	Madagasear,	S. Indian Sea,	Africa	23-35 S.	43-8 E.
Aurora Isle,		S. Pac. Ocean,		15-08 S.	168-17 E.
Ava,	Ava,	India,	Asia	20-25 N.	95-30 E.
Avignon,	Vaucluse,	France,	Europe	43-57 N.	4-53 E.
Bagdad,	Arabian Irak,	Turkey,	Asia	33-20 N.	43-51 E.
Balbec,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-30 N.	37-0 E.





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<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude. D. M.</i>	<i>Longitude. D. M.</i>
Baltic Sea,		between Ger. & Swed.	Europe		
Barcelona,	Catalonia,	Spain,	Europe	41-23 N.	2-13 E.
Basse-Terre,	Guadaloupe,	Carib. Sea,	N. Amer.	15-59 N.	61-59 W.
Bastia,	Corsica,	Italy,	Europe	42-30 N.	9-40 E.
Batavia,	Java,	India,	Asia	6-12 S.	106-53 E.
Bath,	Somersetsh.	England,	Europe	51-22 N.	2-16 W.
Bay of Bengal,	Coast of India,		Asia	Indian Ocean.	
Bay of Biscay,	Coast of France,		Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Bayonne,	Low. Pyrenees,	France,	Europe	43-29 N.	1-25 W.
Belgrade,	Servia,	Turkey,	Europe	45-0 N.	21-20 E.
Bencoolen,	Sumatra,	India,	Asia	3-49 S.	102-15 E.
Bender,	Bessarabia,	Russia,	Europe	46-40 N.	29-0 E.
BERLIN,	Brandenburg,	Germany,	Europe	52-32 N.	13-22 E.
Bermuda Isles,		Atlant. Ocean,	N. Ame- rica	32-35 N.	63-23 W.
Bern,	Bern,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-0 N.	7-20 E.
Berwick,	Berwickshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48 N.	1-45 W.
Bilbao,	Biscay,	Spain,	Europe	43-26 N.	3-18 W.
Birmingham,	Warwicksh.	England,	Europe	52-30 N.	1-50 W.
Black or Eux- ine sea,		Turkey in Europe and Asia			
Bogota,		Colombia,	S. Am.	4-10 N.	73-50 W.
Bokhara,	Ubeck Tartary,		Asia	39-15 N.	62-45 E.
Bolabola Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-32 S.	151-47 W.
Bolcheretz,	Kamchatka,	Russia,	Asia	52-54 N.	156-42 E.
Bologna,	Bolognese,	Italy,	Europe	44-29 N.	11-26 E.
Bombay,	Bombay Isle,	India,	Asia	18-56 N.	72-43 E.
Boston,	New England,	United States,	N. Am.	42-25 N.	70-32 W.
Bourbon Isle,		Indian Ocean,	Africa	20-51 S.	55-25 E.
Bourdeaux,	Gironde,	France,	Europe	44-50 N.	29 W.
Breda,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-40 N.	4-40 E.
Bremen,	Low. Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	53-35 N.	3-20 E.
Breslau,	Silesia,	K. of Prussia,	Europe	51-3 N.	17-13 E.
Brest,	Finisterre,	France,	Europe	48-22 N.	4-29 W.
Bridge-town,	Barbadoes,	Atlant. Ocean,	N. Am.	13-5 N.	58-35 W.
Bruges,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-16 N.	3-5 E.
Brunswick,	Low. Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-30 N.	10-30 E.
Brussels,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-51 N.	4-26 E.
Bucharest,	Walachia,	Turkey,	Europe	44-26 N.	26-13 E.
Buda,	Lower Hungary,		Europe	47-40 N.	19-20 E.
Buenos-Ayres,		La Plata,	S. Am.	34-35 S.	58-26 W.
Byron-Bay,		Hawaii,	between Asia and Amer.	19-43 N.	155-8 W.
Cadiz,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	36-31 N.	6-6 W.
Caen,	Calvados,	France,	Europe	49-11 N.	-16 W.
Caffa,	Crimea,	Russia,	Europe	45-6 N.	35-12 E.
Cagliari,	Sardinia,	Italy,	Europe	39-25 N.	9-38 E.
Cairo,	Lower Egypt,		Africa	30-2 N.	31-23 E.
Calais,	Strait of Calais,	France,	Europe	50-57 N.	1-55 E.
Calcutta,	Bengal,	India,	Asia	22-34 N.	88-34 E.
Callao,		Peru,	S. Amer.	12-1 N.	76-53 E.
Calmar,	Smaland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-40 N.	16-26 E.

Names of

Cambod

Cambr

Campb

Canary

Point

Candia,

Candi,

Canso F

Canterbu

Canton,

Cape Cl

—Comon

—Corse,

—Finiste

—of God

Hope,

—Horn,

—Verd,

—St. Vin

Carlsron

Carthager

Carthager

Casn,

Caspian S

Casel,

St. Catha

rine's Isl

Cattgat,

Cayenne,

Cette,

Chandenag

Charlestown

Charlton I

Chartres,

Cherbourg,

Cherson,

Chester,

St. Christo

pher's Is

Civita Vecc

Clerke's Isl

Clermout,

Colmar,

Cologne,

Constance,

CONSTANT

NOBLE,

COPENHAG

Corinth,

Cork,

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude. D. M.</i>	<i>Longitude. M. D.</i>
Cambodia,	Cambodia,	India,	Asia	13-30 N.	105 E.
Cambray,	North,	France,	Europe	50-10 N.	3-18 E.
Campbelltown	Argyleshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30 N.	5-40W.
Canary, N. E.					
Point,	Canary Isles,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	23-13 N.	15-33W.
Candia,	Candia Island,	Mediter. Sea,	Europe	35-18 N.	25-23E.
Candi,	Ceylon,	Indian Ocean,	Asia,	7-54 N.	79-0 E.
Canso Port,	Nova Scotia,		N. Am.	45-20 N.	60-50W.
Canterbury,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-18 N.	1-14 E.
Canton,	Canton,	China,	Asia,	23-7 N.	113-7 E.
Cape Clear,		Irish Sea,	Europe	51-18 N.	9-50W.
—Comorin,		India,	Asia	7-56 N.	78-10 E.
—Corse,	Fantee country	Gold-coast,	Africa	5-18 N.	2-25W.
—Finisterre,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	42 51 N.	9-12W.
—of Good					
Hope,		Cafraria,	Africa	34-29 S.	18-28 E.
—Horn,	Terra del Fue- go Island,		S. Ame.	55-58 S.	67-21W.
—Verd,		Western coast of Africa	Africa	14-45 N.	17-28W.
—St. Vincent	Algarve,	Portugal,	Europe	37-2 N.	8-57W.
Carlscrona,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe	56-7 N.	15-31 E.
Carthagena,	Murcia,	Spain,	Europe	37-35 N.	1-8W.
Carthagena,		Colombia,	S. Am.	10-26 N.	75-42W.
Casan,	Casan,	Russia,	Asia	55-43 N.	49-13 E.
Caspian Sea,	to the N. of	Persia,	Asia		
Cassel,	Hesse-Cassel,	Germany,	Europe	51-19 N.	9-34 E.
St. Catha- rine's Isle,		Atlantic Ocean, between Swed. & Den.	S. Am.	27-35 S.	49-12 W.
Cattegat,			Europe		Atlantic Ocean.
Cayenne,	Cayenne Isle,	Guiana,	S. Am.	4-56 N.	52-10W.
Cette,	Herault,	France,	Europe	43-23 N.	3-42 E.
Chandenagour,	Bengal,	India,	Asia	22-51 N.	88-34 E.
Charlestown,	South Carolina		N. Am.	32-45 N.	80-39W.
Charlton Isle,		Hudson's Bay,	N. Am.	52-3 N.	79-0W.
Chartres,	Eure et Loire,	France,	Europe	48-26 N.	1-33 E.
Cherbourg,	Channel,	France,	Europe	49-38 N.	1-33W.
Cherson,		Russia,	Europe	46-38 N.	32-50 E.
Chester,	Cheshire,	England,	Europe	53-58 N.	3, 4 W.
St. Christo- pher's Isle,		Caribbean Sea,	N. Am.	17-15 N.	62-38 W.
Civita Vecchia,	Patr. di S. Petro,	Italy,	Europe,	42-5 N.	11-51 E.
Clerke's Isles,		Atlant. Ocean,	S. Am.	55-5 S.	34-37W.
Clermout,	Puy de Dome,	France,	Europe	45-46 N.	3-10 E.
Colmar,	Upper Rhine,	France,	Europe	48-4 N.	7-27 E.
Cologne,	Duchy of the Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	50-55 N.	6-55 E.
Constance,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	47-37 N.	9-12 E.
CONSTANTI- NOBLE,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41-1 N.	28-58 E.
COPENHAGEN,	Zeeland Isle	Denmark,	Europe	55-40 N.	12-40 E.
Corinth,	Morea,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30 N.	23-0 E.
Cork,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	51-53 N.	8-23W.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude. D.M.</i>	<i>Longitude. D.M.</i>
Cowes,	Isle of Wight,	England,	Europe	50-46 N.	1-14W.
Cracow,		Poland,	Europe	50-10 N.	19-55 E.
Curaçao I.,		West Indies,	Am.	11-56 N.	68-20W.
Cusco,		Peru,	S. Am.	12-25 S.	70-0W.
Dacca,	Bengal,	India,	Asia	23-30 N.	89-20 E.
Damascus,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-15 N.	37-20 E.
Dantzic,		Prussia,	Europe	54-22 N.	18-38 E.
Delft,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-6 N.	4-5 E.
Dehli,		India,	Asia	29-0 N.	76-30 E.
Dendera,		Upper Egypt,	Africa	26-15 N.	32-45 E.
Dieppe,	Lower Seine,	France,	Europe	49-55 N.	1-4 E.
Diu,	Guzerat,	India,	Asia	21-37 N.	69-30 E.
Dol,	Isle et Vilaine,	France,	Europe	48-33 N.	1-41W.
Dominica,	Windw. Islands,	West Indies,	Am.	15-18 N.	61-22W.
Dominica,	the Marquesas,	Pacific Ocean,		9-39 S.	139-5W.
Dongola,		Nubia,	Africa	19-20 N.	32-3 E.
Dover,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-7 N.	1-13 E.
DRESDEN,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-0 N.	13-36 E.
Dublin,	Leinster,	Ireland,	Europe	53-21 N.	6-1W.
Dungeness,	Kent,	England,	Europe	50-52 N.	1-4 E.
Dunkirk,	N. Department,	France,	Europe	51-2 N.	2-27 E.
Easter Isle,		Pacific Ocean,		27-6 S.	109-41W.
Eastern Ocean,	betw. the N.W.	of N. Am. & N.E. of Asia,	N. Pacific Ocean.		
Edinburgh,	Edinburghsh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-57 N.	3-7W.
Edystone,	Eng. Channel,	England,	Europe	50-8 N.	4-19W.
Embden,	Westphalia,	Germany,	Europe	53-25 N.	7-10 E.
Eng. Channel,		betw. Eng. & Fr.	Europe Atlantic Ocean.		
Ephesus,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38-1 N.	27-30 E.
Erzeroum,	Armenia,	Turkey,	Asia	39-56 N.	40-55 E.
Ethiop. Sea,		Coast of Guinea,	Africa Atlantic Ocean.		
Eustatius,	Caribbean Sea,	West Indies,	N. Am.	17-29 N.	63-5W.
Evreux,	Eure,	France,	Europe	49-1 N.	1-13 E.
Exeter,	Devonshire,	England,	Europe	50-44 N.	3-29W.
Falmouth,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-8 N.	4-57W.
Fayal Town,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-32 N.	28-36W.
Ferro Town,	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	27-47 N.	17-40W.
Ferrol,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	43-30 N.	8-40W.
Fez,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	33-30 N.	5-30W.
Florence,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe	43-46 N.	11-7 E.
Fonchal,	Madeira,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	32-37 N.	17-0W.
France (Isle of)		Indian Ocean,	Africa	20-9 S.	57-33 E.
Franckfort,	Upper Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-55 N.	8-40 E.
François, Cape,		Hayti,	Amer.	19-46 N.	72-18W.
Geneva,	Geneva,	Switzerland,	Europe	46-12 N.	6-5 E.
Genoa,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	44-25 N.	8-45 E.
St. George's Isle,	one of the Azores,	in the Atlant.	38-39 N.	28-0W.	
St. George's Town,		Bermuda,	Amer.	32-45 N.	63 35W.
Gibraltar,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	36-5 N.	5-17W.

Names of

Glasgow
Goa,
Gondar
Gothen
Götting
Guadala
Island
Halifax,
Hambur
HANOV
Havanna
St. Heler
La Hugu
Honoruru
Horn, Ca
Huaheine
Hull,

Janeiro, I
Jerusalem
Ispahan,
Isthmus of

Kano,
Kingston,

Land's End

Leghorn,
Leyden,
Lima,
Limerick,
Lintz,
Lisbon,
Lisle,
LONDON,
Londonderr
Loretto,
Louisbourg,
Louvain,
Louveau,
Lubeck,
St. Lucia Is
Lunden,
Lyons,

Macao,
Macassar,
Madras,
MADRID,
Magdalena I
Mahon, Port
Majorca, Isle,

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude. D. M.</i>	<i>Longitude. D. M.</i>
Glasgow,	Lanerkshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-51 N.	4-15W.
Goa,	Malabar,	India,	Asia	15-31 N.	17-45 E.
Gondar,	Amhara,	Abyssinia,	Africa	12-34 N.	37-33 E.
Göthenborg,	Göthland,	Sweden,	Europe	57-41 N.	11-39 E.
Gottingen,	Hanover,	Germany,	Europe	51-31 N.	9-53 E.
Guadaloupe Island,		Carib. Sea,	Amer.	15-59 N.	61-41W.
Halifax,	Nova Scotia,		Amer.	44-39 N.	63-15W.
Hamburg,	Holstein,	Germany,	Europe	53-30 N.	10-1 E.
HANOVER,		Germany,	Europe	52-21 N.	9-47 E.
Havanna,	Isle of Cuba,		Amer.	23-11 N.	82-15W.
St. Helena,			S. Atlantic	15-55 S.	5-49W.
La Hogue, Cape, La Manche,	France,		Europe	49-43 N.	1-51W.
Honoruru	Oahu, betw. Asia and	Amer.	21-18 N.	157-56W.	
Horn, Cape,	Tierra del Fuego,	Amer.	55-58 S.	67-26W.	
Huaheize,		S. Pacific	16-43 S.	151-1W.	
Hull,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-45 N.	0-15W.
Janeiro, Rio,		Brasil,	Amer.	22-54 S.	42-43W.
Jerusalem,		Palestine,	Asia	31-49 N.	35-25 E.
Ipahan,	Irak,	Persia,	Asia	32-25 N.	52-55 E.
Isthmus of Suez, joins Africa to Asia,					
————— Darien, joins North to South America.					
Kano,		Soudan,	Africa	12-0 N.	9-20 E.
Kingston,	Jamaica,	West Indies,	Amer.	18-15 N.	76-35W.
Land's End,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-3 N.	5-41W.
Leghorn,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe	43-33 N.	10-25 E.
Leyden,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-10 N.	4-32 E.
Lima,		Peru	S. Amer.	12-1 S.	76-44W.
Limerick,	Limerickshire,	Ireland,	Europe	52-35 N.	8-48W.
Lintz,	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	48-16 N.	13-57 E.
Liabon,	Estremadura,	Portugal,	Europe	38-42 N.	9-4W.
Liale,	North,	France,	Europe	50-37 N.	3-9 E.
LONDON,	Middlesex,	England,	Europe	51-31 N.	1st Mer.
Londonderry	Londonderry,	Ireland,	Europe	55-10 N.	7-40W.
Loretto,	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	43-15 N.	14-15 E.
Louisbourg,	C. Breton Isle,		N. Amer.	45-53 N.	59-48W.
Louvain,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-53 N.	4-49 E.
Louveau,	Siam,	India,	Asia	12-42 N.	100-56 E.
Lubeck,	Holstein,	Germany,	Europe	54-0 N.	11-40 E.
St. Lucia Isle,	Windw. Isles,	West Indies,	N. Amer.	13-24 N.	60-46W.
Lunden,	Göthland,	Sweden,	Europe	55-41 N.	13-26 E.
Lyons,	Rhone et Loire,	France,	Europe	45-45 N.	4-54 E.
Macao,	Canton,	China,	Asia	22-12 N.	113-51 E.
Macassar,	Celebes Isle,	India,	Asia	5-9 S.	119-53 E.
Madras,	Coromandel,	India,	Asia	13-4 N.	80-33 E.
MADRID,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	40-25 N.	3-20 E.
Magdalenä Isle,		S. Pacific Oc.		10-25 S.	138-44W.
Mahon, Port,	Minorca,	Med' err. Sea,	Europe	39-50 N.	3-53 E.
Majorca, Isle,		Mediterr. Sea,	Europe	39-35 N.	2-34 E.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude. D. M.</i>	<i>Longitude. D. M.</i>
Malacca,	Malacca,	India,	Asia	2-12 N.	102-10 E.
Malines,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-1 N.	4-33 E.
St. Malo,	Morbihan,	France,	Europe	48-38 N.	1-56W.
Malta Isle,	Mediterranean	Sea,	Africa	35-54 N.	14-33 E.
Manilla,	Luçonia, Phi- lip. Isles,	India,	Asia	14-36 N.	120-58 E.
Mantua,	Lombardy,	Italy,	Europe	45-20 N.	10-47 E.
Marie-galante Isle,		Atlan. Ocean,	S. Am.	15-55 N.	61-6W.
Marseilles,	Department of the Rhone.	France,	Europe	43-17 N.	5-27 E.
Martinique,	Caribbean Isl.,	West Indies,	Amer.	14-44 N.	61-5W.
St. Mary's Isle,	Scilly Isles,	Atlantic Oc.	Europe	49-57 N.	6-38W.
St. Mary's To.	Azores,	Atlantic Oc.	Europe	36-56 N.	25-06W.
Maakelyne Isle,		S. Pacific Oc.		16-32 S.	168-4 E.
Mauritius,		Indian Ocean,	Africa	20-9 S.	57-25 E.
Mayo Isle,	Cape Verd,	Atlantic Oc.	Africa	15-10 N.	23-0W.
Meaux,	Seine et Marne,	France,	Europe	48-57 N.	2-57 E.
Mecca,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	21-45 N.	41-0 E.
Melville Isle,	North Georgia,	New-Britain,	N. Am.	75 N.	110 W.
Mentz,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,		49-54 N.	8-25 E.
Mequinez,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34-30 N.	6-0 E.
Messina,		Sicily,	Europe	38-30 N.	15-40 E.
Mexico,		Mexico,	N. Am.	19-54 N.	100-5W.
St. Michael's Isle,	Azores,	Atlantic Oc.	Europe	37-47 N.	25-37W.
Middleburg Isle,		S. Pacific Oc.		21-20 S.	174-29W.
MILAN,	Lombardy,	Italy,	Europe	45-28 N.	9-16 E.
Mocha,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	13-40 N.	43-50 E.
Modena,	Modena,	Italy,	Europe	44-34 N.	11-17 E.
Montpellier,	Herault,	France,	Europe	43-36 N.	3-37 E.
Montréal,	Canada,		N. Am.	45-35 N.	73-11W.
Montserrat I.,	Caribbee Isles,	West Indies,	Amer.	16-47 N.	62-12W.
Moscow,	Moscow,	Russia,	Europe	55-45 N.	37-38 E.
Munich,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-9 N.	11-35 E.
Munster,	Westphalia,	Germany,	Europe	52-0 N.	7-16 E.
Nagasaki,	Japan,	N. Pacific Oc.	Asia	32-32 N.	128-51 E.
Namur,	Namur,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-28 N.	4-49 E.
Nanci,	Meurthe,	France,	Europe	48-41 N.	6-10 E.
Nankin,	Kiangnan,	China,	Asia	32-4 N.	118-52 E.
Nantes,	Lower Loire,	France,	Europe	47-13 N.	1-28W.
Naples,	Naples,	Italy,	Europe	40-50 N.	14-18 E.
Narva,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	59-0 N.	27-35-E.
Newcastle,	Northumberl.	England,	Europe	55-3 N.	1-24W.
New York,	New York,	United States,	N. Am.	40-40 N.	74-0W.
Nice,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	43-41 N.	7-22 E.
Nieuport,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-7 N.	2-50 E.
Norfolk Isle,		S. Pacific Oc.		29-0 S.	168-15 E.
Nootka Iale,		N. Pacific Oc.		49-36 N.	126-42W.
North Cape,	Wardhus,	Lapland,	Europe	71-10 N.	26-29 E.
Norwich,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-40 N.	1-25 E.

Names of

Nuremb

Ochotak

Oleron I

Olinda,

Olmutz,

St. Omer

Oporto,

Oran,

Orenburg

L'Orient

Orleans,

Orleans (

Osnaburg

Ostend,

Oxford C

vatory,

Pacific O

Padua,

Palermo,

Palliser's

Palma Isle

Palmyra,

Panama,

PARIS O

vatory,

Parma,

Patna,

Pau,

St. Paul's

Pegu,

Pekin,

Pembroke,

Pensacola,

Perigieux,

Perth,

Perth-ambu

PETERSBU

St. Peter's I

St. Peter's F

Petropoulos

Philadelph

Pitcairne's

Pines, Isle o

Pisa,

Placentia,

Plymouth,

Plymouth,

Pondicheri,

Port-Royal,

Port-Royal,

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude. D. M.</i>	<i>Longitude. D. M.</i>
Nuremberg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-27 N.	11-12 E.
Ochotak,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	59-20 N.	143-17 E.
Oleron Isle,	Low.Charente,	France,	Europe	46-2 N.	1-20W.
Olinda,		Brazil,	S. Am.	8-13 S.	35-0W.
Olmutz,		Moravia,	Europe	49-30 N.	16-45 E.
St. Omer's,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-44 N.	2-19 E.
Oporto,	Douro,	Portugal,	Europe	41-10 N.	8-22W.
Oran,	Algier,	Barbary,	Africa	36-30 N.	0-5 E.
Orenburg,	Ufa,	Russia,	Asia	51-46 N.	55-14 E.
L'Orient (Port)	Morbihan,	France,	Europe	47-45 N.	3-20W.
Orleans,	Loiret,	France,	Europe	47-54 N.	1-59 E.
Orleans (New)	Louisiana,	United States,	N. Am.	29-57 N.	89-53W.
Osnaburg Isle,		S. Pacific Oc.		17-52	S.148-1 E.
Ostend,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13 N.	2-55 E.
Oxford Obser- vatory,	Oxfordshire,	England,	Europe	51-45 N.	1-10W.
Pacific Ocean, between Asia and America,					
Padua,	Paduano,	Italy,	Europe	45-22 N.	12-0 E.
Palermo,		Sicily,	Europe	38-30 N.	13-43 E.
Palliser's Isles,		S. Pacific Oc.		15-38 S.	146-25W.
Palma Isle,	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-36 N.	17-45W.
Palmyra,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	34-5 N.	38-15 E.
Panama,	Darien,	Colombia,	S. Am.	8-47 N.	80-16W.
PARIS Obser- vatory,	Isle of France,	France,	Europe	48-50 N.	2-25 E.
Parma,	Parmesan,	Italy,	Europe	44-45 N.	10-51 E.
Patna,	Bengal,	India,	Asia	25-45 N.	83-0 E.
Pau,	Low. Pyrenees,	France,	Europe	43-15 N.	0-4W.
St. Paul's Isle,		S. Indian Oc.		37-51 S.	77-53 E.
Pegu,	Pegu,	India,	Asia	17-0 N.	97-0 E.
Pekin,	Peché-lec,	China,	Asia	39-54 N.	116-29 E.
Pembroke,	Pembrokesh.	Wales,	Europe	51-45 N.	4-50W.
Pensacola,	West Florida,	United States,	N. Am.	30-22 N.	87-20W.
Perigueux,	Dordogne,	France,	Europe	45-11 N.	0-48 E.
Perth,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-22 N.	3-12W.
Perth-amboy,	New Jersey,		N. Am.	40-30 N.	74-20W.
PETERSBURG,	Ingria,	Russia,	Europe	59-56 N.	30-24 E.
St. Peter's Isle,		N. Atlant. Oc.	Amer.	46-46 N.	56-12W.
St. Peter's Fort,	Martinique,	West Indies,	N. Am.	14-44 N.	61-16W.
Petropauloskoi,	Kamchatka,	Russia,	Asia	53-1 N.	158-40 E.
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,	United States,	N. Am.	39-56 N.	75-9W.
Pitcairne's Isle,		South Pacific,	Europe,	25-2 S.	133-21W.
Pines, Isle of,	N. Caledonia,	Pacific Ocean,		22-38 S.	167-43 E.
Pisa,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe	43-43 N.	10-17 E.
Placentia,	Newfoundland Isle,		N. Am.	47-26 N.	55-0W.
Plymouth,	Devonshire,	England,	Europe	50-22 N.	4-7W.
Plymouth,	Massachuset,	United States,	N. Am.	41-48 N.	70-25W.
Pondicheri,	Coromandel,	East Indies,	Asia	11-41 N.	79-57 E.
Port-Royal,	Jamaica,	West Indies,	Amer.	18-0 N.	76-40W.
Port-Royal,	Martinique,	West Indies,	Amer.	14-35 N.	61-4W.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude. D. M.</i>	<i>Longitude. D. M.</i>
Porto-Bello,		Colombia,	S. Amer.	9-33 N.	79-45W.
Portland Isle,		S. Pacific Oc.		39-25 S.	178-17E.
Portland Isle,		N. Atlant. Oc.	Europe	63-22 N.	18-49W.
Portsmouth,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-47 N.	1-5W.
Potosi,		La Plata,	S. Amer.	19-50 S.	70-15W.
Prague,		Bohemia,	Europe	50-4 N.	14-50 E.
Presburg,		Up. Hungary,	Europe	48-20 N.	17-30W.
Prince of Wales Fort,	New N. Wales,		N. Amer.	58-47 N.	94-2W.
Pulo Condor,		Indian Ocean, Asia		8-40 N.	107-25 E.
Quebec,	Canada,		N. Amer.	46-55 N.	71-5W.
Queen Char- lotte's Isles,		S. Pacific Oc.		10-11 S.	164-35 E.
Quito,		Colombia,	S. Amer.	0-13 S.	77-50W.
Ragusa,		Dalmatia,	Europe	42-45 N.	18-25 E.
Ratisbon,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-56 N.	12-5 E.
Rennes,	Isle et Vilaine,	France,	Europe	48-6 N.	1-36W.
Resolution Isle,		S. Pacific Oc.		17-23 S.	141-40W.
Reykjavik,		Iceland,		64-9 N.	21-50W.
Rhé Isle,	Low. Charente,	France,	Europe	46-14 N.	1-20W.
Rheims,	Marne,	France,	Europe	49-14 N.	4-7 E.
Rhode Island,		United States,	N. Amer.	41-25 N.	71-20W.
Rhodes,	Rhodes Island,	Levant Sea,	Asia	36-20 N.	27-55 E.
Riga,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	56-55 N.	24-0 E.
Rochefort,	Low. Charente,	France,	Europe	46-2 N.	0-53W.
Rock of Lis- bon,	Mouth of Ta- gus river,	Portugal,	Europe	38-45 N.	9-30W.
Rome, (Saint Peter's)	Pope's Terri- tory,	Italy,	Europe	41-53 N.	12-34E.
Rotterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-56 N.	4-33E.
Rotterdam Isle,		S. Pacific Oc.		20-16 N.	174-24W.
St. Domingo, [City]		West Indies,	Amer.	18-20 N.	70-0W.
— George's Channel	betw. England & Ireland,	Atlant. Oc.,	Europe.		
— Iago,		Chilè,	S. Amer.	34-0 S.	71-0W.
— Salvador,	Brasil,		S. Amer.	13-0 S.	38-0W.
Sackatoo,		Soudan,	Africa,	13-4 N.	6-12 E.
Salonica,	Macedonia,	Turkey,	Europe	40-41 N.	23-13 E.
Santa Cruz,	Teneriffe,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-27 N.	16-11W.
Santa Fé		Mexico,	N. Amer.	35-0 N.	105-50W.
Savannah,	Georgia,		N. Amer.	31-24 N.	81-0W.
Scarborough,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	54-18 N.	0-10W.
Scone,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-24 N.	3-10W.
Sea of Azof,		Little Tartary,	Europe & Asia,		
Sea of Marmora,		Turkey in Europe & Asia,	Black Sea.		
— Okhotsk,	betw. Siberia and Kamchatka,	Asia,	N. Pacif. Ocean.		
— Yellow,	between China and Corea,	North Pacific Ocean.			
Senegal,		Negroland,	Africa	15-53 N.	16-26W.
Seville,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	37-15 N.	6-5W.

Names of

Sheernes
 Siam,
 Sidon,
 Smyrna,
 Soolo Isle,
 Sound,
 South W.
 Southamp
 Stettin,
 Stockholm
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 Strait of I
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 Strait of
 America
 Strait of L
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 Strait of M
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 Strait of S
 Strait of W
 Stralsund,
 Strasbourg,
 Suez,
 Sunderland
 Surat,
 Syracuse,
 Tanna Isle,
 Tauris,
 Tefis,
 Teneriffe Pe
 Tetuan,
 Thebes,
 St. Thomas'
 Thorn,
 Timor, S. V
 Point,
 Tobolsk,
 Toledo,
 Tonga-Taboo
 Isle,
 Tornea,
 Toulon,
 Trapesond,
 Trent,
 Tripoli,
 Tripoli,
 Tunis,
 Turin,
 Turtle Isle,

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude. D. M.</i>	<i>Longitude. D. M.</i>
Sheerness,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-25 N.	0-50 E.
Siam,	Siam,	India,	Asia	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
Sidon,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Asia	33-45 N.	36-15 E.
Smyrna,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38-28 N.	27-24 E.
Soolo Isle,	Philippines,	East Indies,	Asia	5-57 N.	121-20 E.
Sound,	betw. Denmark & Sweden,	Baltic Sea.			
South West Cape,	Van-Diemen's land,	S. Pacific	43-39 N.	145-50 E.	
Southampton,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-55 N.	1-25 W.
Stettin,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	53-32 N.	14-53 E.
Stockholm,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-20 N.	18-8 E.
Strait of Babelmandeb, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea.					
Strait, Behring's, between North America and Asia, in the Frozen Ocean.					
Strait of Dover, between England and France, English Channel.					
Strait of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.					
Strait of Magellan, between Terra del Fuego and Patagonia, South America.					
Strait of Le Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.					
Strait of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean.					
Strait of Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulf.					
Strait of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Asia.					
Strait of Waigat, between Nova Zembla and Russia, Asia.					
Stralsund,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54-23 N.	13-22 E.
Strasbourg,	Low. Rhine,	France,	Europe	48-34 N.	7-46 E.
Suez,	Suez,	Egypt,	Africa	29-50 N.	33-27 E.
Sunderland,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-55 N.	1-10 W.
Surat,	Guzerat,	India,	Asia	21-10 N.	72-27 E.
Syracuse,		Sicily,	Europe	36-58 N.	15-5 E.
Tanna Isle, S. Pacific Oc. 19-32 S. 169-46 E.					
Tauris,	Aderbijan,	Persia,	Asia	38-20 N.	47-17 E.
Teflis,	Georgia,	Russia,	Asia	42-5 N.	46-10 E.
Teneriffe Peak,	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-12 N.	16-24 W.
Tetuan,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	35-40 N.	5-18 W.
Thebes,		Upper Egypt,	Africa	25-40 N.	32-30 E.
St. Thomas' I.	Virgin Isles,	West Indies,	Amer.	18-21 N.	64-26 W.
Thorn,	Prussia,	Europe	52-56 N.	19-0 E.	
Timor, S. W.					
Point,		India,	Asia	10-23 S.	124-4 W.
Tobolsk,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	58-12 N.	68-17 E.
Toledo,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	39-50 N.	3-25 E.
Tonga-Taboo Isle,		S. Pacific Oc.	21-9 S.	174-41 W.	
Tornea,	Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe	65-50 N.	24-7 E.
Toulon,	Var,	France,	Europe	43-7 N.	6-1 E.
Trapesond,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	41-50 N.	40-30 E.
Trent,	Trent,	Germany,	Europe	46-5 N.	11-2 E.
Tripoli,	Tripoli,	Barbary,	Africa	32-53 N.	13-12 E.
Tripoli,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	34-30 N.	35-50 E.
Tunis,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-47 N.	10-0 E.
Turin,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	45-5 N.	7-45 E.
Turtle Isle,		S. P. Ocean,	19-48 S.	178-2 W.	

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries or seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude. D. M.</i>	<i>Longitude. D. M.</i>
Tyre,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia	32-32 N.	36-0 E.
Ulietea Isle,		S. Pac. Ocean,		16-45 S.	151-26 W.
Upsal,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-51 N.	17-43 E.
Ushant Isle,	Finisterre,	France,	Europe	48-28 N.	4-59 E.
Utrecht,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-7 N.	5-0 E.
Venice,	Venice,	Italy,	Europe	45-26 N.	11-59 E.
Vera Cruz,		Mexico,	N. Amer.	19-12 N.	96-25 W.
Verona,	Veronese,	Italy,	Europe	45-26 N.	11-23 E.
Versailles,	Seine et Oise,	France,	Europe	48-48 N.	2-12 E.
VIENNA,	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	48-12 N.	16-22 E.
Vigo,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	42-14 N.	8-23 W.
Warsaw,	Masovia,	Russian Pol.	Europe	52-14 N.	21-5 E.
Washington,	Columbia,	United States,	N. Amer.	38-53 N.	77-48 W.
Whitehaven,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-38 N.	3-36 W.
Whitsuntide Isle,		S. Pacific Oc.,		15-44 S.	168-25 E.
Williamsburg,	Virginia,		N. Amer.	37-12 N.	76-48 W.
Willes' Isles,	South Georgia,	Atlantic Oc.,	America	54-0 S.	38-24 W.
Wilna,	Lithuania,	Poland,	Europe	54-41 N.	25-32 E.
Wittenberg,	Up. Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-49 N.	12-46 E.
Wurtzburg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-46 N.	10-18 E.
Yakutsk,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	62-1 N.	129-52 E.
Yarmouth,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-45 N.	1-48 E.
York,	Yorkshire,	England.	Europe	53-59 N.	1-6 W.
Greenwich Observ. Kent,		England, Europe,		51° 28' 40" N.	0° 5' 37" E.
E. of St. Paul's, London.					

By real
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A Farthin
4 Farthin
12 Pence
5 Shilling
10 Shilling
20 Shilling
21 Shilling

A Sol
A Franc,
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6 Francs
24 Francs

TH
A Cent
A Stiver
A Quarter-
A Gilder or
2 Florins a

A

MODERN TABLE

OF

REAL AND IMAGINARY MONEY.

EXPLANATION.

By real money is understood actual coin, representing in itself the value denominated thereby, as a GUINEA, &c.

* This mark is prefixed to the imaginary money, which is generally used 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 English value are parts of a penny.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

			£.	s.	d.
A Farthing	=	—	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
4 Farthings	=	—	0	0	1
12 Pence	=	a Shilling	0	1	0
5 Shillings	=	a Crown	0	5	0
10 Shillings	=	a Half-Sovereign	0	10	0
20 Shillings	=	a Sovereign	1	0	0
	=	a* Pound sterling	1	0	0
21 Shillings	=	a Guinea	1	1	0

FRANCE.

A Sol	—	—	—	—	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
A Franc, or Livre, compre-	}	—	—	—	0	0	10
hending 100 centimes, or							
ten decimes							
6 Francs	=	an Ecu	—	—	0	5	0
24 Francs	=	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0		

THE KINGDOM OF THE NETHERLANDS.

A Cent	=	—	—	—	0	0	0 $\frac{3}{5}$
A Stiver	=	—	—	—	0	0	1 $\frac{2}{5}$
A Quarter-Florin	=	—	—	—	0	0	5 $\frac{1}{5}$
A Gilder or Florin	=	—	—	—	0	1	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
2 Florins and a half	=	A Rix-dollar	0	4	5		

3 M 2

			£.	s.	d.
3 Florins and 3 Stivers	=	A Ducatoon	0	5	7
10 Florins	=	a Gold coin	0	17	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
14 Florins	=	a Ryder	1	4	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
20 Florins	=	a Gold Ducat	1	15	5

HAMBURG, AND THE NORTH OF GERMANY.

A Schilling	=	— —	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
16 Schillings	=	a Mark	0	1	6
3 Marks	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6
4 Marks	=	a Ducatoon	0	6	0
A Ducat (gold)	=		0	11	3

The kingdom of PRUSSIA, and the grand duchy of the LOWER RHINE.

A Grosch	=	— —	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Groschen	=	a Florin	0	1	1
3 Florins	=	* a Dollar	0	3	3
4 Florins	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	4
8 Florins	=	a Ducat	0	8	8
A Frederic d'Or	=	— —	0	17	4

The kingdom of HANOVER.

16 Groschen	=	a Florin	0	2	2
a Florin and a half	=	a Dollar	0	3	3
2 Florins	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	4
2 Dollars	=	a Gold-coin	0	6	6
5 Dollars	=	a George d'Or	0	16	3

N. B. In the kingdom of Saxony the coins, except the last, are of the same value and denomination. In the kingdom of Wurtemberg, 28 schillings make a rix-florin (2s. 6d.), and a florin and a half make a rix-dollar. In Bavaria, beside the silver coin, a Carolin d'or is used, equivalent to ten florins and 42 kreutzers, or rather more than a pound sterling. In Austria, the florin is about 1s. 11d. and the gold coins are ducats and *souverains*, the former being four florins and a half, and the latter six florins and two-thirds. Groschen, florins, rix-dollars, and ducats, are the prevailing coins in Austrian and Prussian Poland; but, in the Russian division, the coins of that empire are also current.

RUSSIA.

A Copeck	=	— —	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
100 Copecks	=	a rouble	0	3	3
A Gold-coin of ten roubles	=	— —	1	12	6

A Skillin
4 Skillin
4 Marks
3 Dollar
A Ducat

1 Skillin
16 Skillin
4 Marks
6 Marks
A Ducat

A Kreutz
60 Kreutz
2 Florins

In most
used in pe
nari; but,
pence in so
six lire an
usually equi
that of Pie
politan car
or 3s. 6d.;
from 15 to 1

2 Maraved
17 Ochavos
32 Ochavos
8 Reals
10 Reals
* A Ducat
A Pistole

* A Re
20 Res
480 Res

SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

			£.	s.	d.
A Skilling	=	— —	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{4}$
4 Skillings	=	a silver Mark	0	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
4 Marks	=	a Dollar	0	1	6
3 Dollars	=	a Rix-geld	0	4	6
A Ducat	=	— —	0	8	9

DENMARK.

1 Skilling	=	— —	0	0	0 $\frac{9}{16}$
16 Skillings	=	*a Mark	0	0	9
4 Marks	=	a Crown	0	3	0
6 Marks	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6
A Ducat	=	— —	0	9	0

SWITZERLAND.

A Krentzer	=	— —	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
60 Kreuzters	=	a Florin	0	2	6
2 Florins and a half	=	a Mark	0	6	3

ITALY.

In most parts of this country, the *lira*, which is no real coin, is used in pecuniary calculations. It consists of 20 soldi, or 240 denari; but, as these are not the same in all the states, it is about six-pence in some parts, and eight in others. A Venetian ducat contains six *lire* and a quarter; a Milanese *filippo*, seven *lire*; a zechin is usually equivalent to nine shillings; the scudo of Rome is about 4s. 3d.; that of Piedmont is higher, as is also that of Tuscany. The Neapolitan carlino is four-pence, and the ducat comprehends 100 *grani*, or 3s. 6d.; while an *oncetta* amounts to three ducats. A *pistole* varies from 15 to 16 shillings.

SPAIN.

2 Maravedis	=	an Ochavo	0	0	0 $\frac{23}{100}$
17 Ochavos	=	a Real de Velon	0	0	2 $\frac{5}{8}$
32 Ochavos	=	a Real de Plata	0	0	5 $\frac{1}{8}$
8 Reals	=	* a Piastre	0	3	4
10 Reals	=	a Dollar	0	4	3 $\frac{1}{4}$
* A Ducat	=	— —	0	4	9
A Pistole	=	— —	0	16	3

PORTUGAL.

* A Re	=	— —	0	0	0 $\frac{27}{100}$
20 Rea	=	a Vintem	0	0	1 $\frac{7}{10}$
480 Res	=	a Crusade	0	2	8

50 Vintems	=	a Milre (1000 Res)	£. s. d.
6400 Res	=	a Joannes	0 5 7
			1 15 8 $\frac{2}{3}$

TURKEY.

An Asper	=	— —	0 0 0 $\frac{3}{8}$
A small Piastre	=	— —	0 1 7
80 Aspers	=	a Grand Piastre	0 4 0
A Zechin	=	— —	0 8 9

PERSIA.

A Shahi	=	— —	0 0 4
A Mamouda	=	— —	0 0 8
4 Shahis	=	an Abbassi	0 1 4
50 Abbassis	=	a Toman	3 6 8

INDIA.

An Ana	=	— —	0 0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
16 Anas	=	a Rupee	0 2 0
3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Rupees	=	a Pagoda	0 7 6
15 Rupees	=	a Mohur	1 10 0

N. B. In China rupees are also current, beside dollars and crowns; and a mace passes for eight-pence, ten of which make a tale. In Japan, fifteen maces, at four-pence each, make an ounce of silver; and thirty, an ingot; and pieces of gold are used, each weighing an ounce.

EGYPT.

3 Aspers	=	a Medine	0 0 1 $\frac{2}{3}$
10 Medines	=	a Ducatello	0 1 4 $\frac{2}{3}$
30 Medines	=	a Griscio.	0 4 2
200 Aspers	=	a Sultanin	0 9 3

THE STATES OF BARBARY.

A Blankil	=	— —	0 0 2
20 Blankils	=	a Silver Zechin	0 3 4
53 Blankils	=	a Gold Zechin	0 8 10
100 Blankils	=	a Pistole	0 16 8

THE UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA.

A cent	=	— —	0 0 0 $\frac{1}{100}$
100 Cents	=	a Dollar	0 4 6
10 Dollars	=	a Golden Eagle	2 5 0

N. B. Halves and quarters of eagles and of dollars are also circulated.

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Ref. Chr.
4004 The4003 Cai
2348 The
2247 The2188 Mis
2059 Nin
1921 The

1897 The

1856 (or,

1822 Men
1635 Jose

1574 Aar

1571 Mos

1556 (or

1546 Scan
1493 Cadr

1491 Mos

1453 The

1452 Mose

1451 The

1406 Iron

1193 (or

1184 (or

1048 Davi

1004 The

894 Moun

869 The

814 The

776 The

753 Era

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CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

REMARKABLE EVENTS, DISCOVERIES, AND INVENTIONS;

ALSO

THE ÆRA, THE COUNTRY, AND WRITINGS, OF LEARNED
AND EMINENT MEN:

THE WHOLE COMPREHENDING, IN ONE VIEW, THE ANALYSIS OR OUTLINES OF ORNEMAL
HISTORY, FROM THE CREATION TO THE PRESENT TIME.

Ref. Christ.

- 4004 The world rises into a regular form, from a chaotic mass; and Adam and Eve are brought into existence.
- 4003 Cain is born—the first offspring of a woman.
- 2348 The whole world is destroyed by a deluge.
- 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.
- 2188 Misraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt.
- 2059 Ninus, the son of Belus, erects the kingdom of Assyria.
- 1921 The covenant of God is made with Abraham, when he leaves Haran to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years of sojourning.
- 1897 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are destroyed for their wickedness, by fire from Heaven.
- 1856 (or, as some think, 1560) the kingdom of Argos, in Greece, begins under Inachus.
- 1822 Memnon, the Egyptian, invents letters.
- 1635 Joseph dies in Egypt, which concludes the book of Genesis, containing a period of 2369 years.
- 1574 Aaron is born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God first high priest of the Israelites.
- 1571 Moses, brother to Aaron, is born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter.
- 1556 (or 1371) Cærops brings a colony of Saïtes from Egypt into Attica, and founds the kingdom of Athens, in Greece.
- 1546 Scamander lands in Phrygia from Crete, and founds the kingdom of Troy.
- 1493 Cadmus carries the Phœnician letters into Greece, and builds the citadel of Thebes.
- 1491 Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom with 600,000 Israelites.
- 1453 The first Olympic games are celebrated at Olympia, in Greece.
- 1452 Moses dies, aged 120 years.
- 1451 The Israelites, under Joshua, enter the land of Canaan.
- 1406 Iron is found in Greece, from the accidental burning of the woods.
- 1193 (or 1095.) The Trojan war arises from the rape of Helen by Paris.
- 1184 (or 1086) Troy is totally destroyed.
- 1048 David is sole king of Israel.
- 1004 The temple solemnly dedicated by Solomon.
- 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.
- 720 Samaria taken, after three years' siege, and the kingdom of Israel finished by the Assyrians, who carried the ten tribes into captivity.
- The first eclipse of the moon on record.

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- 658 Byzantium (now Constantinople) built by a colony of Athenians.
 604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, some Phœnicians sail from the Red Sea round Africa, and return by the Mediterranean.
 600 Thales, of Miletus, travels into Egypt; acquires a knowledge of geometry, astronomy and philosophy; returns to Greece; inculcates general notions of the universe, and maintains that one supreme intelligence directs and regulates all its motions.
 Maps, spheres, and sun-dials, invented by Anaximander, the scholar of Thales.
 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 is acted at Athens, in a waggon, by Thespis, and his itinerant companions.
 526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library founded.
 515 The second temple at Jerusalem is finished under Darius.
 509 Tarquin, the seventh and last Roman king, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two consuls.
 481 Xerxes, king of Persia, begins his expedition against Greece.
 458 Ezra is sent from Babylon to Jerusalem, with the captive Jews.
 454 The Romans send to Athens for Solon's laws.
 401 Retreat of 10,000 Greeks, under Xenophon.
 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy in Greece, believes the immortality of the soul; for which, and other sublime doctrines, he is put to death by his ungrateful and inhuman countrymen.
 331 Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius king of Persia, and various nations of Asia.
 323 He dies at Babylon; and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms.
 285 Dionysius of Alexandria began his astronomical era on Monday, June 26, being the first who found the exact solar year to consist of 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes.
 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs 72 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.
 260 The Romans first apply themselves to naval affairs.
 218 The second Punic war begins. Hannibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles.
 190 The Romans first enter Asia, and, from the spoils of Antiochus, bring the Asiatic luxury to Rome.
 168 Perseus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.
 167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedon.
 163 The government of Judea, under the Maccabees, begins, and continues 126 years.
 146 Carthage, the rival of Rome, is destroyed by the Romans.
 55 Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain.
 47 The battle of Pharsalia between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated.
 45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself.
 The solar year introduced by Cæsar.
 44 Cæsar, having overturned the liberties of his country, is killed in the senate-house.
 31 The battle of Actium, in which Mark Antony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Cæsar.
 30 Alexandria is taken by Octavius; upon which Antony and Cleopatra put themselves to death, and Egypt becomes a Roman province.
 27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus, the imperial dignity, and an absolute exemption from the laws.
 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. D.

- 33 The crucifixion of our Redeemer is referred to Friday, April 3; his resurrection to Sunday, April 5; his ascension to Thursday, May 14.
 43 Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain.

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- 49 London is founded by the Romans.
- 61 Boadicea, the British queen, defeats the Romans, but is soon after conquered by them.
- The Gospel, the Acts of the Apostles, and other sacred documents, are promulgated; and Christianity makes great progress.
- 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.
- 76 Titus, the Roman general, takes Jerusalem, which is razed to the ground.
- 79 Herculaneum overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius.
- 85 Julius Agricola defeats the Caledonians on the Grampian hills.
- 121 The Caledonians re-conquer from the Romans all the southern parts of Scotland.
- 135 The second Jewish war ends, with the banishment of the Jews.
- 152 When the Christians have been cruelly harassed in the Roman dominions, Antoninus Pius stops the persecution against them.
- 222 About this time the Roman empire begins to sink under its own weight. The barbarians begin their irruptions, and the Goths have an annual tribute not to molest the empire.
- 274 Silk first brought from India; the manufacture introduced into Europe by some monks, 551; first worn by the clergy in England, 1534.
- 306 Constantine the Great begins his reign.
- 313 The tenth persecution ends by an edict of Constantine, who favors 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.
- 328 Constantine removes the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is thenceforward called Constantinople.
- 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.
- 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 Alarie, king of the Visi-Goths.
- 412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.
- 420 The kingdom of France is supposed to commence upon the Lower Rhine, under Pharamond.
- The Romans, reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return; advising the Britons to take arms in their own defence.
- 446 The Britons are greatly harassed by the Scots and Picts, upon which they make loud complaints to the Romans, but receive no assistance.
- 447 Attila (surnamed the Scourge of God) ravages the Roman empire with his Huns.
- 449 Vortigern, the British king, invites the Saxons to assist him 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; upon the ruins of which, several new states arise in Italy and other parts, consisting of Goths, Vandals, and other barbarians, under whom literature is extinguished, and the works of the learned are destroyed.
- 496 Christianity begins in France under Clovis.
- 516 The computation of time by the Christian era introduced by Dionysius the monk.
- 529 The code of Justinian, the Eastern emperor, published.
- 557 A terrible plague over Europe, Asia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.
- 585 The South-Britons are driven by the Saxons into Wales and Cornwall.
- 606 The papal power begins by the concessions of Phocas, emperor of the East.
- 622 Mohammed, an Arabian impostor, retires from Mecca to Medina, and lays the foundation of the Saracen empire. From this period his followers compute their time—that is, from the *Hejira*, or Flight.
- 653 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.
- 713 The Saracens conquer Spain.
- 749 The race of Abbas become khalifs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.

- 747 The Danes begin their ravages in England.
 800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the western empire.
 826 Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his subjects for being a Christian.
 827 Egbert, king of Wessex, unites the Heptarchy, by the name of England.
 838 The Scots and Piets have a decisive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kenneth.
 862 Ruric, a Gothic adventurer, erects, at Novgorod, a grand duchy, which leads to the formation of the Russian empire.
 896 Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders, composes a body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, and tithings; erects county-courts, and founds the university of Oxford.
 915 The university of Cambridge founded.
 936 The Saracen empire divided into seven kingdoms.
 975 Pope Boniface VII. deposed and banished for his crimes.
 979 Coronation oaths said to be first used in England.
 991 The figures in arithmetic brought into Europe by the Saracens.
 996 The German empire is declared elective.
 999 Boleslaus, the first king of Poland.
 1000 Paper, made of cotton rags, was in use; that of linen rags in 1170: the manufacture introduced into England, at Dartford, 1588.
 1005 A great number of churches are built about this time in a new and grand style.
 1015 Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England.
 1017 Canute, king of Denmark, obtains possession of England.
 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 who maintained an army.
 1066 The battle of Hastings, between Harold and William (surnamed the Bastard) duke of Normandy, in which the former is slain. The duke becomes king of England.
 1070 William introduces the feudal law.
 Musical notes invented.
 1080 About this time the Guelfs and Ghibellines, or partisans of the popes and the German emperors, convulse Italy by their factious animosities.
 1086 Domesday book compiled by order of William, from a survey of all the estates in England.
 The Tower of London built by William, to curb his English subjects.
 1096 The first crusade to the Holy Land undertaken by several Christian princes, to drive the infidels from Jerusalem.
 1110 Edgar Atheling, the last Saxon prince, dies in England.
 1118 The order of the Knights Templars instituted, to defend the sepulchre at Jerusalem, and to protect Christian strangers.
 1139 Commencement of the kingdom of Portugal.
 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, combining war with religion, begins in Germany.
 1172 Henry II., king of England, takes possession of Ireland, which, from that period, has been governed by an English viceroy.
 1176 England is divided by Henry into six circuits, and justice is dispensed by itinerant judges.
 1180 Glass windows begin to be used in private houses in England.
 1181 The laws of England are digested about this time by Glauville.
 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 very numerous army.
 1200 Chimneys were not known in England.
 Surnames now begin to be used; first among the nobility.
 1204 The court of inquisition is established on the continent.
 1208 London incorporated, and obtained the first charter, for electing a 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 Genghiz Khan, emerge from the northern parts of Asia, and over-run all the Saracen empire.

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- 1227 The houses of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, still thatched with straw.
- 1253 The famous astronomical tables are compiled by Alphonso the Wise, king of Castile.
- 1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, and put an end to the Saracen empire.
- 1264 The commons of England are summoned to parliament.
- 1273 The empire of the present Austriau family commences in Germany.
- 1282 Wales subdued by Edward I.
- 1285 The crown of Scotland is claimed by twelve candidates, who submit their pretensions to Edward I., whence arises a long war between the British nations.
- 1293 From this year we may date a regular succession of English parliaments.
- 1298 The Turkish empire begins in Bithynia under Othman.
- 1302 The mariner's compass invented or improved by Gioia of Naples.
- 1307 The Swiss cantons commence their confederacy.
- 1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert de Brus.
- 1336 The woollen manufacture introduced into England from the Netherlands.
- 1337 The first comet whose course is described with astronomical accuracy.
- 1340 Gunpowder and guns first invented by Schwartz, a monk of Cologne: in 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain the battle of Creci.
- Oil painting first practised by John Vanneck.
- 1344 Gold first coined in England.
- 1346 The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scotland is captured.
- 1349 The order of the Garter instituted in England by Edward III.
- 1352 The Turks first enter Europe.
- 1356 The battle of Poitiers, in which king John of France and his son are made prisoners.
- 1362 The law pleadings of England changed from French to English.
- 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.
- 1386 A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands established in London.
- 1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amusement.
- 1394 The kingdoms of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, are for a time united.
- 1399 Order of the Bath instituted at the coronation of Henry IV.; renewed in 1725.
- 1415 The battle of Azincourt gained over the French by Henry V. of England.
- 1428 The siege of Orleans, the first blow to the English power in France.
- 1430 Laurentius of Haarlem invented the art of printing on wooden blocks. Gottenburg afterwards invented cut metal types; but the art was carried to perfection by Peter Schœffer, who discovered the mode of casting the types in matrices. Frederic Corsellis began to print at Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types: but it was William Caxton who introduced into England the art of printing with fusile types in 1474.
- 1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks, which ends the Eastern empire.
- 1460 Engraving and etching on copper invented.
- 1483 Richard III. killed at the battle of Bosworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII. which puts an end to the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster.
- 1488 Henry establishes fifty yeomen of the guard, the first standing army.
- 1492 The Moors in Spain are entirely subdued by Ferdinand.
- America first discovered by Colon, or Columbus, a Genoese, in the service of Spain.
- 1497 The Portuguese first sail to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. South America discovered by Americo Vespucci, or Americus Vespucius, from whom the whole continent has its name.
- 1499 North America discovered for Henry VII. by Cabot.
- 1509 Gardeneing begins to be regularly practised in England, so as to supersede the importation of vegetables from the Netherlands.
- 1513 The battle of Flodden, in which James IV. of Scotland fell.
- 1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
- Egypt conquered by the Turks.
- 1518 Magalhaens or Magellan, in the service of Spain, discovers the strait of that name in South-America.
- 1523 Gustavus Vasa rescues Sweden from the Danish yoke.
- 1529 The name of Protestant takes its rise from the Reformed protesting against the church of Rome, at the diet of Spire.

- 1537 Religious houses dissolved by Henry VIII.
 1539 The first English edition of the Bible authorised; the present translation finished in 1611.
 About this time cannon began to be used in ships.
 1543 Silk stockings first worn by the French king; first used in England by queen Elizabeth, 1561; the steel frame for weaving invented by the Rev. Mr. Lee, of St. John's College, Cambridge, 1589.
 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.
 1560 The Reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.
 1563 The English commence the slave trade on the coast of Africa.
 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.
 1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the first English circumnavigator.
 Parochial registers first ordered to be kept in England.
 1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy: the 5th of October being counted the 15th.
 1587 Mary queen of Scotland 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 Nantes, tolerating the Protestants.
 1589 Conches first introduced into England; act for hackney coaches, 1693; increased to 1000 in 1770, and to 1200 in 1801.
 1597 Watches first brought into England from Germany.
 1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
 1603 Queen Elizabeth dies, and James VI. of Scotland unites that kingdom with England and Wales, under the name of Great Britain.
 1604 The Gunpowder plot discovered at Westminster.
 1608 Galileo, of Florence, discovers the satellites about the planet Jupiter, by the telescope, recently invented in Holland.
 1610 Henry IV. murdered at Paris by Ravaillac.
 The first permanent settlement in Virginin; which leads to the colonisation of other parts of North-America.
 1619 Dr. W. Harvey, an Englishman, discovers the circulation of the blood.
 1620 The broad silk manufacture introduced into England.
 1626-27 The barometer invented by Torricelli, and the thermometer by Dr. Fahrenheit.
 1628 The Huguenots, or French Protestants, are completely reduced to subjection, after a long war.
 1632 The battle of Lutzen, distinguished by the fall of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the German Protestants.
 1635 Regular posts established from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
 1641 A dreadful massacre in Ireland, perpetrated by the Catholics.
 1642 King Charles impeaches five members, who had opposed his arbitrary measures; and a civil war arises in England.
 1643 Excise on beer, ale, &c. first imposed by the parliament.
 1646 Episcopacy abolished in England.
 1649 Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall.
 1654 Cromwell assumes the protectorship.
 1655 The English, under admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
 1658 Cromwell dies, and is succeeded in the protectorship by his son Richard.
 1660 King Charles II. is restored by Monk, commander of the army.
 Episcopacy restored in Great-Britain.
 The people of Denmark, being oppressed by the nobles, surrender their privileges to Frederic III. who becomes absolute.
 1662 The Royal Society established by Charles II.
 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.
 Tea first used in England.
 1667 The peace of Breda.
 1668 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
 1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
 The habeas-corpus act.

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- 1683 India stock sold from 360 to 500 per cent.
- 1685 The duke of Monmouth raises a rebellion against James II., but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded.
The edict of Nantes is infamously revoked by Louis XIV. and the Protestants are cruelly persecuted.
- 1688 The revolution in Great-Britain.
- 1689 William prince of Orange, and Mary, the daughter of James, are raised to the throne.
A bill for a land-tax enacted in England.
The toleration act passed.
- 1690 The battle of the Boyne, gained by William against James in Ireland.
- 1692 The English and Dutch fleets defeat the French off La Hogue.
- 1693 Bayonets at the ends of loaded musquets first used by the French against the confederates, in the battle of Turin.
Bank of England established.
The first public lottery was drawn in this year.
Massacre of Highlanders at Glencoe by king William's troops.
- 1694 Stamp duties instituted in England.
- 1695 The peace of Ryswick.
- 1701 Prussia erected into a kingdom.
A society is instituted in England for the propagation of the Gospel in foreign parts.
- 1702 A vigorous war is carried on against the French by a powerful confederacy.
- 1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards.
The battle of Bleuheim won by the duke of Marlborough and the allies.
- 1706 The treaty of union between England and Scotland.
The battle of Ramillies, gained by the confederates.
- 1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards.
The battle of Oudenarde won by the allies.
Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy.
- 1709 Peter the Great, czar of Moscow, defeats Charles XII. at Pultowa, who flies into Turkey.
The battle of Malplaquet won by the allies.
- 1710 The cathedral church of St Paul, London, rebuilt by sir Christopher Wren, in 37 years.
- 1713 The peace of Utrecht.
- 1714 Interest reduced to five per cent.
- 1715 A rebellion in Scotland.
- 1716 An act for septennial parliaments in Great-Britain.
- 1719 The Mississippi scheme at its height in France.
Lombe's silk-throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby.
- 1720 The South-Sea scheme in England began April 7, was at its height at the end of June, and quite suuk about September 29.
- 1727 Inoculation first tried on criminals with success.
- 1732 Kouli Khan usurps the Persian throne, and conquers the Mogul empire.
- 1739 War is declared against Spain, and, in 1744, against France.
- 1744 Commodore Anson returns from his voyage round the world.
- 1745 The allies lose the battle of Fontenoy.
A rebellion breaks out in Scotland; and the pretender's troops are defeated at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
- 1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
- 1750 Westminster bridge is finished, after the labor of twelve years.
- 1752 The new style introduced into Great-Britain; the third of September being reckoned the fourteenth.
- 1755 A new war with France.
Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, instituted in London.
- 1755 Lisbon receives dreadful injury from an earthquake, Nov. 1.
- 1756 One hundred and forty-six Englishmen confined in the black hole at Calcutta, by order of the nabob of Bengal, and 123 found dead in the morning.
- 1759 General Wolfe killed in the battle of Quebec, gained by the English.
- 1762 War is declared by George III. against Spain.
Peter III., emperor of Russia, is deposed, imprisoned, and murdered.
American philosophical society established in Philadelphia.
- 1763 A treaty of peace concluded at Paris.
The bold spirit of Wilkes involves him in a contest with the court, and excites a flame over the kingdom.

- 1764 The parliament granted 10,000*l.* to Mr. Harrison, for the discovery of the longitude by his time-piece.
- 1765 His majesty's royal charter passed for incorporating the society of artists.
- 1768 Royal academy of painting, sculpture, and architecture, established in London.
- 1770 Blackfriars bridge is opened.
- 1771 Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks return with captain Cook from a voyage round the world, having made several important discoveries in the Pacific Ocean.
- 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 a great part of his dominions, which they divide among themselves, in violation of the most solemn treaties.
- 1773 The Jesuits expelled from the pope's dominions, and suppressed by his bull, August 25.
A war, between the Russians and Turks, proves disgraceful and disastrous to the latter.
- 1774 Peace is concluded between those powers.
Deputies from the several American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the first general congress, September 5.
- 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 among the American provinces.
- 1776 The American colonies are declared, by the congress, to be free and independent states, July 4.
- 1777 Lieutenant-general Burgoyne is obliged to surrender his army, at Saratoga, to the American general Gates.
- 1778 A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the thirteen United States of North-America.
Commissioners are sent to treat with the Americans; but all overtures are rejected.
- 1779 The Spaniards join the French against Great-Britain.
After the discovery of the Sandwich islands, captain Cook loses his life in a sudden commotion of the natives.
- 1780 Torture in courts of justice abolished in France.
The Protestant Associators go up to the House of Commons, with their petition for the repeal of an act passed in favor of the Papists.
That event is 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, &c. These alarming riots are at length suppressed by the interposition of the troops, and many of the rioters are tried and executed for felony.
Dreadful hurricanes in the West Indies.
A declaration of hostilities against Holland, December 20.
- 1781 Earl Cornwallis, and a considerable British army, surrender themselves prisoners of war to the American and French troops, October 19.
- 1782 The commons address the king against the prosecution of offensive war on the continent of North America, March 4.
Admiral Rodney obtains a signal victory over the French fleet, near Dominica, April 12.
The bill for the repeal of 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, September 13.
Treaty concluded betwixt the Republic of Holland and the United States of America, October 8.
Provisional articles are signed at Paris, by which the American colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic majesty to be free, sovereign, and independent states, November 30.
- 1783 Three earthquakes in Calabria Ulterior, and Sicily, destroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, February 3, 7, and 28.
Definitive treaties of peace are concluded between Great-Britain and its principal adversaries; and, in 1784, with Holland.
A conveyance through the air, in a car attached to a balloon—the ingenious but hazardous invention of Montgolfier—is repeatedly risqued in France.
- 1784 The memory of Handel commemorated by a grand jubilee at Westminster-Abbey, May 26.

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- 1784 Lunardl ascended with a balloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields, September 15,—the first attempt of the kind in England.
- 1786 Gustavus III., king of Sweden, prohibited the use of torture in his dominions. Commercial treaty signed between England and France, September 26.
- 1787 The Prussians, under the duke of Brunswick, take Amsterdam by a *coup de main*; and the power of the stadtholder is augmented.
- 1788 In the early part of October, the first symptoms appeared of a severe disorder which incapacitated the British monarch for the exercise of his high functions; but he recovered before a bill of regency was completed.
- 1789 Revolution in France, capture of the Bastille, &c. July 14.
- 1792 The king of Sweden died on the 29th of March, in consequence of being wounded by Akerstrom.
The French revolutionists abolish the old government, and erect a republic, September 21.
- 1793 Louis XVI. is unjustly put to death, after a pretended trial, January 21.
By the French convention war is declared against the king of Great-Britain and the stadtholder, on account of the supposed hostility of those princes to the new arrangements.
The queen of France is decapitated, October 16.
- 1794 An important victory is obtained by earl Howe over the French fleet, June 1. The multiplied murders committed by Robespierre and his party under the forms of law, are punished by the law of retaliation, July 28.
- 1795 The prince of Orange is driven from Holland to Great-Britain: and the Dutch republic is revolutionised by the French.
The trial of Warren Hastings concludes with his acquittal, above seven years after its commencement.
- 1796 The French meet with great success in Italy, and compel the king of Sardinia to cede the duchy of Savoy.
The Cis-Alpine republic is organised by Bonapartè in the North of Italy.
- 1797 A signal victory is gained over the Spanish fleet by Sir John Jervis, afterwards created earl St. Vincent, February 14.
An alarming mutiny arises in the channel fleet at Spithead, April 15. It spreads among other ships; but is suppressed by the spirit of the government.
The French democratise Venice and Genoa.
A great victory gained over the Dutch fleet by admiral Duncan, October 11.
Peace between France and Austria, signed at Campo Formio, October 17.
- 1798 A dreadful rebellion in Ireland, not quelled without much bloodshed.
The glorious victory of admiral Nelson at Aboukir, August 1.
- 1799 The war against France recommenced by the emperor.
Serlingapatam taken by lieutenant-general Harris, and the sultan Tippoo killed, May 4.
The directorial government abolished in France, and a new constitution framed, according to which Bonapartè was to be first consul for ten years.
- 1800 The battle of Marengo gained by Bonapartè.
The missionary system is established on a large scale, and an institution is formed, under the appellation of the Church Missionary Society to Africa and the East.
- 1801 The union with Ireland takes place, January 1.
The peace of Lunéville, between France and Austria, signed February 9.
The battle of Alexandria gained by the British troops, March 21.
Paul, the Russian emperor, is murdered, March 24.
Lord Nelson destroys the Danish fleet near Copenhagen, April 2.
- 1802 A treaty of peace between Great-Britain and the French republic, signed at Amiens, March 27.
Very large and commodious docks are opened for the ships concerned in the West-Indian trade; and a new dock, on a large scale, is also undertaken at Wapping by the merchants of London.
- 1803 The war is renewed with France.
An insurrection in Dublin.
- 1804 The duke d'Enghien, seized by order of Bonapartè on a neutral territory, is shot in the night in the wood of Vincennes.
- 1805 The Cis-Alpine or Italian republic declared an hereditary monarchy, by the title of the kingdom of Italy.
Great-Britain and Russia agree to a third coalition against France.
General Mack surrenders to the French with his army, consisting of 25,000 Austrians, October 17.
Memorable battle of Trafalgar, glorious but fatal to lord Nelson, Oct. 21.

- 1805 Battle of Austerlitz, in which the Austrians and Russians were defeated by the French with great loss, December 2.
Peace between Austria and France concluded at Presburg, December 26.
- 1806 The Cape of Good Hope taken by the English.
Joseph Bonapartè becomes king of Naples and Sicily, February 15.
Battle of Ms^a, gained by the English in Calabria.
Holland is declared by the French to be a kingdom; and Louis Bonapartè is the new king.
The French triumph over the Prussians in the battle of Jena, October 14.
- 1807 The battle of Eylau, February 6.
The slave trade is abolished by the British parliament.
The battle of Friedland, where the Russians were defeated by the French, June 14.
Treaty of Tilsit, between Russia and France, concluded July 7.
The kingdom of Westphalia erected in favor of Jerome Bonapartè, September 7.
Copenhagen bombarded, and the whole of the Danish navy surrendered to the English, September 7.
The prince regent and court of Portugal emigrate to Brasil, November 29.
- 1808 The king of Spain, Charles IV., abdicates the crown in favor of his son, who is proclaimed king under the name of Ferdinand VII., March 19.
Bonapartè, by artifices and threats, prevails on Charles and Ferdinand to resign their respective rights in his favor; after which, they are confined in the interior of France.
Joseph Bonapartè assumes the sovereignty of Spain, July 12.
The Battle of Baylen gained by the Spaniards.
Battle of Vimiero in Portugal gained by Sir Arthur Wellesley, August 21.
The convention of Ciutra signed, by which the French are quietly suffered to retire from Portugal, August 30.
- 1809 Battle of Corunna; death of general Moore, January 16.
A revolution in Sweden.—Gustavus Adolphus IV. is deposed, and his uncle, the duke of Sudermania, chosen king, by the title of Charles XIII., March 13.
Hostilities again commence between Austria and France, April 9.
Bonapartè, after several battles, in which he is constantly successful, and the Austrians sustain great losses, enters Vienna, May 12.
The pope, Pius VII., is deposed by the French, May 17.
The battles of Aspern and of Esling, in which the French are repulsed, May 21, 22.
The decisive victory of Wagram, obtained by the French, July 5.
Battle of Talavera in Spain, July 27.
Disastrous expedition to the isle of Walcheren.
Peace concluded between Sweden and Russia, September 5.
Definitive treaty between France and Austria, signed at Vienna, October 3.
- 1810 Imprisonment of Sir Francis Burdett in the Tower, for a supposed libel on the house of commons, April 9.
The union of Holland with France declared by a French decree, July 9.
Bernadotte, the French general, chosen crown-prince of Sweden, August 18.
The colonists of Venezuela revolt from the king of Spain, and form a new government, which, after a long contest, becomes the republic of Colombia.
- 1811 The king being incapable of acting as sovereign, the prince of Wales is invested with the regency, February 6.
The British arms triumph at Barrosa and Albuera, in Spain, March 5, May 16.
Batavia and the other Dutch settlements in the island of Java are captured by the English.
Riots break out in Nottinghamshire, among the distressed manufacturers, and spread into other counties.
- 1812 Mr Perceval, the prime minister, is assassinated at the entrance of the house of commons, May 11.
The French are defeated at Salamanca by the English and Portuguese, July 22.
The United States of America declare war against Great-Britain.
The French, under the conduct of Napoleon, invade Russia; but, after several conflicts, they are driven from the country with dreadful loss and disgrace.
- 1813 The duke of Wellington defeats the French at Vittoria, June 21.

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- 1813 The French are totally defeated at Lelispic, October 19. Holland, the kingdom of Westphalia, and other vassal states, are encouraged to shake off the French yoke.
- 1814 The allies cross the Rhine, with a full determination of enforcing the submission of France.
Great-Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, conclude a treaty of alliance at Chaumont, engaging to bring into the field the whole military power of their respective states, or at least 150,000 men each, with a view of crushing the dangerous predominance of France, and restoring the independence of the European states.
Bonapartè resigns Spain to Ferdinand VII.
After some well-contested battles, the combined troops approach Paris; the fortified posts are stormed, and the city capitulates, March 31.
Bonapartè, having rejected reasonable terms of peace, is deposed by the senate, and sent to Elba; and Louis XVIII. is placed on the throne.
The pope is restored to freedom and to power.
Treaties are concluded (May 30) between the French and the confederate powers, reducing the kingdom nearly to the same boundaries which circumscribed it in 1792; and the foreign troops return to their respective countries.
Peace is restored between Britain and the United States by the treaty of Ghent, December 24.
- 1815 Bonapartè emerges from his retreat, invades France, and recovers the imperial dignity.
Having gained an advantage at Ligny, he is encouraged to attack the British, Belgian, and subsidiary troops, near Waterloo. He seems to be on the point of prevailing; but, on the march of Blucher to join the duke of Wellington, he is chastised by a memorable defeat, June 18.
Paris is again taken by the allies (July 3); the king is restored to the throne; and the tyrant, not having an opportunity of escaping to America, surrenders himself to the commander of a British ship of war. The disposal of his person being left to the decision of the prince regent, he is confined in the island of St. Helena.
The French are compelled, by a new treaty, (November 20) to give up a number of their fortresses for temporary occupancy, and to submit to other unpleasing demands.
By a congress of princes and ministers at Vienna, the affairs of Europe, so long disordered and convulsed, are deliberately adjusted.
- 1816 To chastise the Algerines for their piratical outrages, a British armament is sent out under lord Exmouth.
Humbled by the ruin of his fortifications and the destruction of his ships, the dey consents to the liberation of his European captives, and promises to abolish Christian slavery in his dominions.
A new state is formed in South-America, under the designation of the United Provinces of the Rio de la Plata.
- 1817 The prince regent and the duke of Wellington open, with great solemnity, a new bridge over the Thames, extending from the Strand to the county of Surrey, built with remarkable substantiality and skill, and dignified by the name of Waterloo.
Partial insurrections are produced in England by the severe distress of the manufacturers; but they are easily quelled.
The death of the princess Charlotte of Wales, the presumptive heiress of the crown, diffuses over the nation a temporary gloom.
- 1817-18 In several of the German states, the Lutherans and Calvinists, formerly so hostile, enter into an union.
- 1818 In consideration of the tranquil and peaceable demeanor of the French nation, the allied powers (October 9) consent to the evacuation of the kingdom by their troops, two years before the time specified in the last treaty.
A French dynasty commences in Sweden.
The independence of the Chilean state, in South-America, is established.
- 1819 A new bridge from London to Southwark is opened, consisting of three arches of cast iron, of an extraordinary span, and of curious construction.
The United States of America procure, from the imbecile court of Spain, a cession of East and West Florida.
Captain Parry penetrates to the Arctic Sea, and reaches a latitude and longitude far beyond the former progress of European navigators.
- 1820 On the accession of George IV., a conspiracy is formed against his ministers; but it is detected, and the leaders are capitally punished.

- 1820 Caroline, the new queen, is tried in the high court of peers for adultery; but the penal bill is abandoned.
A revolution occurs in Spain, and also in the kingdoms of Portugal and Naples.
- 1821 The Neapolitan revolutionists are attacked by an Austrian army, and obliged to acquiesce in the plenitude of the royal authority.
The people, in some of the provinces of Greece, revolt from the Turks, and the most sanguinary hostilities commence.
Napoleon dies in exile.
The new republic of Venezuela, or Colombia, is secured by Bolivar's victory at Carabobo.
- 1822 An independent empire is erected in Brasil by Don Pedro, son of the king of Portugal.
- 1823 The French invade Spain, and restore the king to full power.
A counter-revolution is effected in Portugal.
The agriculturists in Great-Britain are reduced to a state of the most alarming distress.
A republican government is formed in Mexico.
Captain Weddell sails much farther to the southward than any preceding navigator, and discovers a sea free from ice in the latitude of 74 degrees.
- 1824 A war breaks out between the India company and the Birmese, and also between the British colonists in Africa and the Ashantees.
A republic is organised in Guatemala, or Central America.
- 1825 A grand Jubilee takes place at Rome.
A rash spirit of speculation is diffused over Great-Britain, and many thousands are seriously injured by embarking their pecuniary property in delusive schemes, and trusting to the credit of joint-stock companies, framed in numerous instances by artful knaves.
On the death of Alexander, the Russian potentate, his eldest brother Constantine is proclaimed emperor; but as he had been, long before, induced by the late czar to resign his pretensions, the grand duke Nicolas ascends the throne, not without a conflict between his supporters and the military friends of his absent brother.
- 1826 A war breaks out between the Persians and the Russians.
The grand signor, irritated at the opposition of the Janisaries to the introduction of new tactics and discipline, suppresses that body of soldiers, formerly so influential and powerful, and riots in the effusion of their blood.
The triumph of the republican interest in Peru is completed by the reduction of Callao.
The Birmese purchase peace by territorial surrenders and pecuniary grants.
The king of Great-Britain sends troops to Portugal, to defend the new constitution, granted by Don Pedro, against the attempts of the Spanish court for its subversion.

MEN OF LEARNING AND GENIUS.

N. B. *By the Date is implied the Time when the Writers died; but, when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flourished is signified by a. The Names in Italics are those who have given the best English Translations.*

Bef. Ch.

- 907 Homer, the first profane writer and Greek poet, flourished. *Pope. Cowper.*
Hesiod, the Greek poet, supposed to have lived near the time of Homer. *Elton.*
- 884 Lycurgus, the Spartan legislator.
- 600 Sappho, the Greek lyric poetess, *a. Fawkes.*
- 558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.
- 556 Æsop, the first Greek fabulist. *Coxal.*
- 548 Thales, the first Greek astronomer.
- 500 Zoroaster, or Zerdusht, the Persian philosopher, *a.*
- 497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philosophy in Greece. *Rowe.*
- 474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet. *Fawkes. Moore.*

456 Æschylus
435 Pindar
413 Herodotus
407 Aristotle
Enriph
406 Sophocles
406—*or, as*
400 Socrates
391 Thucydides
361 Hippocrates
Democritus
359 Xenophanes
348 Plato
336 Isocrates
320 Aristotle
313 Demosthenes
288 Theophrastus
285 Theophrastus
277 Euclid
270 Epicurus
264 Zeno, founder of the Stoic philosophy
244 Callimachus
208 Archimedes
184 Plautus
159 Terence
155 Diogenes
124 Polybius
54 Luccretius
44 Julius Cæsar
Diodorus Siculus
43 Cicero, the orator
Cornelius Nepos
34 Sallust
30 Dionysius of Halicarnassus
19 Virgil
11 Catullus
8 Horace, the poet
A. D.
17 Livy, the historian
19 Ovid, the poet
20 Celsus, the physician
25 Strabo, the geographer
33 Phædrus, the satirist
45 Paterculus, the historian
62 Persius, the satirist
64 Quintus Curtius
Seneca, the philosopher
65 Lucan, the poet
79 Pliny the elder
93 Josephus, the Jewish historian
94 Epictetus, the philosopher
95 Quintilian, the rhetorician
96 Statius, the poet
98 Lucius Florus, the historian
99 Tacitus, the historian
100 Silius Italicus, the poet
104 Martial, the poet
Valerius Flaccus
116 Pliny the younger
117 Suetonius, the biographer
119 Plutarch, the biographer
128 Juvenal, the satirist
140 Ptolemy, the astronomer
150 Justin, the philosopher
161 Arrian, the philosopher
Justin, the philosopher
167 Pausanias, the geographer

- 436 *Æschylus*, the first Greek tragic poet. *Potter*.
 435 *Pindar*, the Greek lyric poet. *West. Green. Pye*.
 413 *Herodotus* of Greece, the first writer of profane history. *Littlebury. Beloe*.
 407 *Aristophanes*, the Greek comic poet, fl. *White*.
Euripides, the Greek tragic poet. *Woodhull. Potter*.
 406 *Sophocles*. *Francklin. Potter*.
 406—or, as some say, 500—*Confucius*, the Chinese philosopher, fl.
 400 *Socrates*, the Grecian philosopher.
 391 *Thucydides*, the Greek historian. *Hobbes. Smith*.
 361 *Hippocrates*, the Greek physician. *Clifton*.
Democritus, the Greek philosopher.
 359 *Xenophon*, the historian. *Smith. Spelman. Ashley. Fielding*.
 348 *Plato*, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of *Socrates*. *Sydenham*.
 336 *Isocrates*, the Greek orator. *Gillies*.
 320 *Aristotle*, the Greek philosopher, *Hobbes. Pye. Gillies*.
 313 *Demosthenes*, the Athenian orator, poisoned himself. *Leland. Francis*.
 288 *Theophrastus*, the Greek philosopher, and scholar of *Aristotle*. *Budgell*.
 285 *Theocritus*, the first Greek pastoral poet, fl. *Fawkes. Polwhele*.
 277 *Euclid*, of Alexandria in Egypt, the mathematician, fl. *R. Simson*.
 270 *Epicurus*, founder of the Epicurean philosophy in Greece.
 264 *Zeno*, founder of the Stoic philosophy.
 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.
 124 *Polybius*, of Greece, the historian. *Hampton*.
 54 *Lucretius*, the Roman poet. *Creech. Good. Busby*.
 44 *Julius Cæsar*, the Roman historian. *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. *Guthrie. Melmoth*.
Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, fl. *Rowe*.
 34 *Sallust*, the Roman historian. *Gordon. Rowe. Stuart*.
 30 *Dionysius of Halicarnassus*, the Greek historian of Rome, fl. *Spelman*.
 19 *Virgil*, the epic poet. *Dryden. Pitt. Warton*.
 11 *Catullus, Tibullus*, and *Propertius*, Roman poets. *Grainger. Dart. Lamb*.
 8 *Horace*, the Roman lyric and satiric poet. *Francis. Boscawen*.
- A. D.
 17 *Livy*, the Roman historian. *Hay. Baker*.
 19 *Ovid*, the Roman elegiac poet. *Garth*.
 20 *Celsus*, the Greek philosopher and physician, fl. *Grieve*.
 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. Drummond. Gifford*.
 64 *Quintus Curtius*, the 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. *Rowe*.
 79 *Pliny the elder*, the Roman natural historian. *Holland*.
 93 *Josephus*, the Jewish historian. *Whiston*.
 94 *Epictetus*, the Greek Stoic philosopher, fl. *Mrs. Carter*.
 95 *Quintilian*, the Roman orator and advocate. *Guthrie*.
 96 *Statius*, the Roman epic poet. *Lewis*.
 98 *Lucius Florus*, of Spain, the Roman historian, fl.
 99 *Tacitus*, the Roman historian. *Gordon. Murphy*.
 100 *Silius Italicus*, the Roman poet.
 104 *Martial*, of Spain, the epigrammatic poet. *Hay*.
Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
 116 *Pliny the younger*, a polite writer. *Melmoth. Orrery*.
 117 *Suetonius*, the Roman historian. *Hughes. Thomson*.
 119 *Plutarch*, of Greece, the biographer. *Dryden. Langhorne*.
 128 *Juvenal*, the Roman satiric poet. *Dryden. Gifford*.
 140 *Ptolemy*, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and astronomer, fl.
 150 *Justin*, the Roman historian, fl. *Turnbull*.
 161 *Arrian*, the Greek historian and philosopher, fl. *Rooke*.
Justin, of Samaria, the oldest Christian author after the apostles.
 167 *Pausanias*, the Grecian antiquary, fl.

A.D.

- 180 Lucian, the humorous and satirical Greek writer. *Dimsdale. Dryden. Francklin. Carr. Tooke.*
 Marcus Aur. Antoninus, the Roman emperor and philosopher. *Collier. Graves. Elphinston.*
- 200 Galen, the Greek philosopher and physician.
 Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, fl.
- 229 Dion Cassius of Greece, the historian, fl.
- 230 Apollonius Rhodius, the Greek poet, fl. *Ekins.*
- 254 Origen, a Christian father, of Alexandria.
 Herodian, of Alexandria, the historian, fl. *Hart.*
- 258 Cyprian, of Carthage, suffered martyrdom. *Marshall.*
- 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 chronologist. *Hanmer.*
- 379 Basil, bishop of Cæsarea.
- 389 Gregory Nazianzen, bishop of Constantinople.
- 397 Ambrose, bishop of Milan.
- 405 Claudian, the Roman poet, fl. *Hawkins.*
- 407 Chrysostom, a father of the church.
- 415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
- 428 Eutropius, the Roman historian.
- 430 St. Augustine, a father of the church.
- 440 Sidonius Apollinaris.
- 524 Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonic philosopher. *Bellamy. Preston. Redpath.*
- 529 Procopius, of Cæsarea, the Greek historian. *Holcroft.*
- 530 Agathias, the Greek historian.

Here ends the illustrious list of ancient or classic authors, for whom mankind are principally indebted to Greece and Rome, those two theatres of human glory; but it will ever be regretted, that small portions only of their writings have come to our hands. This loss was occasioned by the barbarous policy of those illiterate pagans who, in the fifth century, subverted the Roman empire; in which practices they were afterwards joined by the Saracens. Constantinople alone had escaped the ravages of the barbarians; and to the few *literati* who sheltered themselves within its walls we chiefly owe the preservation of those valuable remains of antiquity. To learning, civilisation, and refinement, succeeded worse than Gothic ignorance—the superstition and biggony 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 ages.

Yet, even in those times, some eminent men, who were comparatively enlightened, appeared in various countries; and, since the reformation of religion and the invention of printing, a copious and splendid list may be exhibited. In a work of general geography and history, it may not be deemed altogether just or equitable to confine the enumeration, as in former editions, to the distinguished persons of our own country: we shall therefore introduce many remarkable names from other parts of the civilised world, not only in literature, but also in the arts.

A.D.

- 709 Aldhelm, bishop of Sherborne; excelled in poetry and polite learning.
- 735 Bede, a Northumbrian monk, wrote the history of the Anglo-Saxons.
- 887 Photius, patriarch of Constantinople; Bibliotheca, Novum-Canon.
- 901 King Alfred; history, ethics, and poetry.
- 904 Alcuin, abbot of Canterbury; theology, morals, and poetry.
- 1020 Ferdousi, Persia; poetry.
- 1036 Ebn Sina, (Avicenna) born in Usbeck Tartary; philosophy and medicine.
- 1140 William, a monk of Malmesbury, fl.—history.
- 1164 Peter the Lombard; scholastic theology.
- 1208 William, a monk of Newburgh; history.
- 1209 Moses Maimonides, Spain; commentaries on the Old Testament, and an exposition of the Mosaic law.
- 1240 Robert Grosse-tête, bishop of Lincoln; theology, ethics, and natural philosophy.
- 1259 Matthew Paris, a monk of St. Alban's; history.
- 1274 Thomas Aquinas, Italy; scholastic theology.

1274 St. I
 1286 Greg
 1292 Roge
 1300 Cima
 1308 Duns
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 1321 Dant
 1332 Isma
 1340 Willi
 1374 Petra
 1375 Bocca
 1384 Willia
 1400 Geoffr
 1402 John
 1415 John
 1440 John
 1450 Jami,
 Sir Jo
 1494 Politia
 1519 John
 1520 Rapha
 Leona
 1528 Albert
 1530 Machi
 1531 Zuingl
 1534 Ariosto
 Correg
 1535 Sir Tho
 1536 Erasmi
 1540 Gulccia
 1543 Nicolas
 1546 Martin
 Giulio I
 1547 Henry
 1553 Francis
 1554 Hans H
 1556 Thomas
 1558 Julius
 1560 Philip
 1564 Michael
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 John le
 1566 Vida, bi
 1568 Roger A
 1571 John Jea
 1572 John K
 Peter Ra
 1576 Titian, I
 1579 Camoen
 1580 Palladio,
 1582 George B
 1583 James (c
 genius
 1583 Peter de
 1586 Sir Philli
 1588 Paul of V
 1594 Tintoretto
 1595 Tasso, It
 1598 Edmund
 1600 Richard P
 1601 Tycho Bra
 1602—09—19 A
 painter
 1605 Theodore
 1607 Rev. Dr. J
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 1608 Thomas, c

- 1274 St. Bonaventura, Italy; was highly distinguished in the same department.
 1288 Gregory Aboul-faraj, Armenia; wrote history.
 1292 Roger Bacon, Somersetshire; natural philosophy, and every branch of literature.
 1300 Cimabue, Italy; called the father of modern painters.
 1308 Duns, called Scotus, but born in Northumberland; logic and scholastic divinity.
 1321 Dante, Italy; poetry.
 1332 Ismael Aboulfeda, Syria; history.
 1340 William Ockham, the school divine, fl.
 1374 Petrarca, Italy; the poet.
 1375 Boccaccio, Italy; wrote novels and miscellanies.
 1384 William Wickliffe, Yorkshire; was the father of the Reformation.
 1400 Geoffrey Chaucer, London; the father of English poetry.
 1402 John Gower, Yorkshire; the poet.
 1417 John Huss, Bohemia; the reformer.
 1440 John Lydgate, a monk of St. Edmund's-bury; was an ingenious poet.
 1450 Jami, the Persian poet, fl.
 Sir John Fortescue, Devonshire, fl.—illustrated the laws of England.
 1494 Politian, Italy; was one of the revivers of polite learning.
 1519 John Colet, dean of St. Paul's; wrote upon theology and grammar.
 1520 Raphael, Italy; was an admirable painter.
 Leonardo da Vinci, a painter.
 1528 Albert Durer, Germany; also a painter.
 1530 Machiavelli, Italy; wrote history, politics, and poetry.
 1531 Zuinglius, Switzerland; was a protestant reformer.
 1534 Ariosto, Italy; wrote romantic poetry.
 Correggio, Italy; was a great painter.
 1535 Sir Thomas More, London; wrote divinity, history, politics.
 1536 Erasmus, Holland; philology, and polite learning.
 1540 Guicciardini, Italy; history.
 1543 Nicolas Copernicus, Poland; astronomy.
 1546 Martin Luther, Germany; was a religious reformer.
 Giulio Romano, Italy; a painter.
 1547 Henry Howard, earl of Surrey; wrote poems.
 1553 Francis Rabelais, was the Lucian of France.
 1554 Hans Holbein, Switzerland; the painter.
 1556 Thomas Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury; the reformer.
 1558 Julius Cæsar Scaliger, Italy; wrote criticism and poetry.
 1560 Philip Melancthon (Schwartzerde), Germany; was a reformer.
 1564 Michael Angelo Buonaroti, Italy; excelled in painting, sculpture, and architecture.
 John le Chauve, or Calvin, France; promoted the Reformation.
 1566 Vida, bishop of Alba, Italy; wrote Latin poetry.
 1568 Roger Aseham, Yorkshire; classical literature.
 1571 John Jewel, bishop of Salisbury; protestant theology.
 1572 John Knox, East-Lothian; was a reformer.
 Peter Ramus (la Ramée), France; wrote on logic and philosophy.
 1576 Titian, Italy; was a great painter.
 1579 Camoens, Portugal; wrote poetry.
 1580 Palladio, Italy; was an architect.
 1582 George Buchanan, Dunbartonshire; wrote history and Latin poetry.
 1583 James (called the Admirable) Crichton, Perthshire; was an universal genius.
 1585 Peter de Ronsard, France; wrote poetry.
 1586 Sir Philip Sidney, Kent; poems and romances.
 1588 Paul of Verona (Paolo Veronese); shone as a painter.
 1594 Tintoretto, Italy; a painter.
 1595 Tasso, Italy; a poet.
 1598 Edmund Spenser, London; a poet.
 1600 Richard Hooker, Devonshire; wrote on ecclesiastical polity.
 1601 Tycho Brahe, Denmark; cultivated astronomy.
 1602—09—19 Augustino, Annibale, and Lodovico Carracci, Italy; were celebrated painters.
 1605 Theodore Beza, France; was a reformer.
 1607 Rev. Dr. John Rainolds, Devonshire; was one of the most learned men of his time.
 1608 Thomas, earl of Dorset; wrote poetry.

- 1509 James Arminius, Holland; theology.
Joseph Justus Scaliger; Latin poetry and criticism.
- 1615—25 Francis Beaumont and John Fletcher; dramatic pieces.
- 1616 William Shakspeare, Warwickshire; tragedies and comedies.
Cervantes, Spain; romance of Don Quixote.
- 1617 Thuanus (de Thou), Paris; history.
- 1618 Sir Walter Raleigh, Devonshire; history.
- 1622 John Napier, of Merchiston; discovered the logarithms.
- 1623 William Camden, London; wrote history and antiquities.
- 1624 Mariana, Spain; history.
- 1626 Francis Bacon, lord Verulam; natural philosophy, and literature in general;
Lancelot Andrews, bishop of Winchester; theology.
- 1628 Malherbe, France; poetry.
- 1630 Kepler, Germany; astronomy.
- 1634 Sir Edward Coke, Norfolk; was a judge, and a writer upon law.
- 1635 Davila, Italy; wrote history.
Lope de Vega, Madrid; dramatic pieces.
- 1637 Benjamin Jonson, London; the drama.
- 1638 Jansen, bishop of Ypres; theology.
- 1639 Philip Massinger, Wilts; dramatic pieces.
Martin Opitz, was the father of German poetry.
- 1640 Sir Peter Paul Rubens, a painter of the Flemish school.
- 1641 Meursius, Holland; wrote on classical antiquities.
Domenichino, Italy; was a painter.
Vandyck, Netherlands; a painter.
- 1642 Galileo Galilei, Italy; studied natural philosophy.
Guido, Italy; was a painter.
- 1644 William Chillingworth, Oxford; wrote on theology.
Bentivoglio, Italy; history, letters.
- 1645 Grotius (Groot), Holland; divinity, civil law, history and philology.
Quevedo, Madrid; poems and miscellanies.
- 1648 Edward lord Herbert, of Cherbury; history, and deistical philosophy.
Marin Mersenne, France; natural philosophy.
Voiture, France; poetry and miscellanies.
- 1649 William Drummond, of Hawthornden; history and poetry.
Teniers, was a Flemish painter.
- 1650 René Des-Cartes, France; wrote on philosophy.
- 1651 Inigo Jones, London; was an able architect.
- 1653 Salmasius (Saumaise), Paris; wrote on classical criticism.
- 1654 John Selden, Sussex; antiquities, law of nations.
- 1655 Gassendi, France; mathematics and philosophy.
- 1656 James Usher, archbishop of Armagh; ecclesiastical antiquities and theological criticism.
- 1657 Dr. William Harvey, Kent; discovered the circulation of the blood.
- 1660 James Catz, Holland; wrote poetry.
- 1662 Pascal, France; Provincial Letters.
- 1665 Nicolas Poussin, France; was a capital painter.
- 1666 Guercino, Italy; a painter.
- 1667 Jeremy Taylor, bishop of Down; wrote on theology.
Abraham Cowley, London; poetry.
- 1668 Rembrandt, Holland; was a painter of the Flemish school.
- 1671 Bourdon, France; a painter.
- 1672 John Wilkins, bishop of Chester; wrote on divinity and philosophy.
- 1673 Moliere, France; comedies.
Salvator Rosa, Italy; was a painter.
- 1674 John Milton, London; wrote the Paradise Lost.
Edward Hyde, earl of Clarendon, Wilts; history.
- 1677 Rev. Dr. Isaac Barrow, London; natural philosophy and theology.
Thomas Hobbes, Wilts; was a sceptical philosopher.
- 1680 Samuel Butler, Worcestershire; wrote burlesque poetry.
Sir Peter Lely, Germany; was a painter.
The duke de la Rochefoucault, France; wrote maxims, reflections, and memoirs.
Bernini, Italy; was a sculptor.
- 1682 Claude, of Lorraine; a painter.
Murillo, Spain; also a painter.
- 1683 Francis Mezeray, France; wrote history,
Algernon Sidney; politics.

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- 1684 Peter Corneille, France; tragedies.
- 1685 Thomas Otway, Sussex; tragedies and comedies.
- 1687 George, duke of Buckingham; comedies.
Edmund Waller, Warwickshire; poems, speeches, letters, &c.
- 1688 Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Somersetshire; theology and metaphysics.
John Bunyan, Bedfordshire; the *Pilgrim's Progress*.
- 1689 Dr. Thomas Sydenham, Dorsetshire; medicine.
- 1690 Nathaniel Lee, London; tragedies.
Robert Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers.
- 1691 Robert Boyle, Ireland; divinity and philosophy.
Richard Baxter, Shropshire; theology.
- 1694 John Tillotson, archbishop of Canterbury; sermons.
Pufendorf, Germany; history and the law of nations.
- 1695 Huygens, Holland; mathematics and astronomy.
La-Fontaine, France; fables and tales.
Henry Purcell; Orpheus Britannicus.
- 1696 The marchioness of Sevigné, France; letters.
- 1697 Redi, Italy; medicine, natural history, and poetry.
- 1699 Sir William Temple, London; politics and miscellanies.
- 1700 John Dryden, Northamptonshire; poems and dramatic pieces.
- 1703 Grævius, Germany; classical antiquities and criticism.
Rev. Dr. John Wallis, Kent; divinity, logic, and mathematics.
- 1704 John Locke, Somersetshire; divinity, metaphysics, politics.
Louis Bourdaloue, France; sermons.
James Bossuet, bishop of Meaux; divinity and history.
- 1705 Luca Giordano, Italy; was an eminent painter.
James Bernouilli, Switzerland; wrote on the mathematics.
- 1706 John Ray, Essex; theology and botany.
Peter Bayle, France; critical biography.
- 1707 Simon Patrick, bishop of Ely; theology.
George Farquhar, Londonderry; comedies.
Vauban, France; was a great engineer.
- 1710 Flechier, bishop of Nîmes; wrote sermons, orations, biography.
- 1711 Nicolas Boileau, France; poems.
- 1713 Antony, earl of Shaftesbury; Characteristicks.
Carlo Maratti, Italy; shone as a painter.
Corelli, Italy; a musical composer.
- 1714 Dr. John Radcliffe, Yorkshire; a celebrated physician.
- 1715 Gilbert Burnet, bishop of Salisbury; wrote on divinity, history, &c.
William Wycherley, Shropshire; comedies.
Fenelon, archbishop of Cambray; the romance of *Telemachus*, political morality.
Malebranche, France; theology and moral philosophy.
- 1716 James Gronovius, Germany; classical antiquities and criticism.
Godfrey Leibnitz, Germany; mathematics and natural philosophy.
- 1718 Nicolas Rowe, Bedfordshire; dramatic pieces.
- 1719 Joseph Addison; Spectator, poems, politics.
Rev. John Flamsteed, Derbyshire; astronomy.
Sir Samuel Garth, was a physician and a poet.
- 1721 Dr. John Keill, Edinburgh; wrote upon mathematics and astronomy.
Matthew Prior, London; poetry.
- 1723 Sir Christopher Wren, London; was a very able architect.
Sir Godfrey Kneller, Germany; a painter.
- 1724 Rev. William Wollaston, Staffordshire; wrote on theological philosophy.
- 1725 Rapin de Thoyras, France; History of England.
- 1726 Sir John Vanbrugh; comedies.
- 1727 Sir Isaac Newton, Lincolnshire; natural philosophy.
- 1729 Dr. Samuel Clarke, Norwich; divinity, natural philosophy, and classical criticism.
William Congreve; dramatic pieces.
Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; comedies and periodical papers.
- 1731 Francis Aterbury, bishop of Rochester; sermons and controversial pieces.
- 1732 John Gay, Devonshire; poems and dramatic pieces.
- 1735 Dr. John Arbuthnot, Mearns-shire; medicine, miscellanies.
- 1737 Elizabeth Rowe, Somersetshire; devotional pieces and miscellanies.
- 1738 Herman Boerhaave, Holland; medicine.
- 1740 Philip Barattier, Germany; was a prodigy of learning for his years.
- 1741 John Baptist Rousseau, Paris; wrote poetry.

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- 1742 Dr. Edmund Halley, London; natural philosophy, astronomy, and navigation.
Rev. Dr. Richard Bentley, Yorkshire; classical learning and criticism.
- 1744 Alexander Pope, London; poetry.
- 1745 Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poetry, politics, and miscellanies.
- 1746 Colin Maclaurin, Argyleshire; natural philosophy.
- 1747 Rev. Jeremiah Seed, Cumberland; sermons.
Dr. Francis Hutcheson, Ayrshire; moral philosophy.
- 1748 James Thomson, Roxburghshire; poetry and the drama.
Rev. Dr. Isaac Watts, Hauts; divinity, logic, philosophy, poetry.
- 1750 Rev. Dr. Conyers Middleton, Yorkshire; theology and classical biography.
- 1751 Dr. Philip Doddridge, London; was an eminent dissenting minister.
Henry, viscount Bolingbroke; wrote on politics and metaphysics.
- 1752 Joseph Butler, bishop of Durham; the Analogy of Religion.
- 1753 George Berkeley, bishop of Cloyne; theology and philosophy.
Dr. James Foster, Devonshire; theology.
- 1754 Dr. Richard Mead, London; medicine.
Henry Fielding, Somersetshire; novels and comedies.
- 1755 The baron de Montesquieu, France; Spirit of Laws.
- 1756 William Collins, Sussex; poetry.
- 1757 Fontenelle, France; philosophy and miscellanies.
- 1758 James Hervey, Northamptonshire; Meditations.
- 1759 Handel, Germany; music.
Kleist, Germany; poems.
Maupertuis, France; natural philosophy.
- 1761 Thomas Sherlock, bishop of London; sermons and controversial divinity.
Benjamin Hoadly, bishop of Winchester; polemic theology.
Samuel Richardson, Derbysire; novels.
- 1763 William Shenstone, Shropshire; poems.
- 1764 Dr. John Leland, Lancashire; was a defender of Christianity against Deism.
Charles Churchill; wrote poems.
William Hogarth, London; excelled in humorous and characteristic painting.
- 1765 Rev. Dr. Edward Young, Hauts; religious, moral, and tragic poetry.
- 1768 Rev. Laurence Sterne, Ireland; Sermons, Sentimental Journey, Tristram Shandy.
- 1770 Thomas Gray, London; poems.
Dr. Mark Akenside, Northumberland; poems.
Thomas Chatterton, Bristol; imitations of ancient poetry.
- 1771 Dr. Tobias Smollet, Dunbartonshire; history and novels.
- 1773 Philip, earl of Chesterfield; letters.
George, lord Lyttelton; history and poetry.
- 1774 Oliver Goldsmith, Ireland; poetry, history, and the comic drama.
- 1776 David Hume, Edinburgh; history and metaphysics.
- 1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; comedies.
- 1778 Linnæus (von Linné), Sweden; natural history.
Voltaire, France; history, the drama, miscellanies.
John James Rousseau, Geneva; was an eccentric philosopher.
- 1779 William Warburton, bishop of Gloucester; wrote on theology and criticism.
David Garrick, Hereford; flourished as the British Roscius.
Dr. John Armstrong, Roxburghshire; wrote poems.
- 1780 Sir William Blackstone, London; was a learned and elegant commentator on the laws of England.
- 1781 Solomon Gessner, Switzerland; wrote the Death of Abel.
- 1782 Henry Home, lord Kames, Scotland; metaphysics, morals, laws, and criticism.
- 1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerksire; medicine.
John d'Alembert, France; philosophy and history.
- 1784 Dr. Samuel Johnson, Staffordshire; lexicography, biography, essays, and poetry.
- 1785 Richard Glover, London; epic and tragic poetry.
- 1787 Dr. Robert Lowth, bishop of London; biblical criticism and grammar.
- 1788 Thomas Gainsborough, Suffolk; was a distinguished painter.
George Louis le Clerc, count de Buffon, France; wrote on natural history.
- 1790 Dr. William Cullen, Lanerksire; medicine.
Dr. Benjamin Franklin, Boston, New-England; natural philosophy, and miscellanies.
Adam Smith, Fifeshire; moral and political philosophy.
- 1790-1800 Thomas and Dr. Joseph Warton, Hauts; poetry, criticism, and miscellanies.

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- 1791 Rev. John Wesley, Lincolnshire; was the founder of the sect of Methodists. Mozart, Germany; a musician and composer.
- 1792 Sir Joshua Reynolds, Devonshire; wrote discourses on the art of painting, which he so ably cultivated.
- 1793 Dr. William Robertson, Edinburgh; history.
- 1794 Edward Gibbon, Surrey; history.
Lavoisier, Paris; philosophical chemistry.
Sir William Jones, London; law, oriental learning, and miscellanies.
- 1796 Robert Burns, Ayrshire; poems.
- 1797 Edmund Burke, Dublin; politics, modern history.
- 1798 Marmontel, France; moral tales and miscellanies.
- 1799 Dr. Joseph Black, professor of medicine at Edinburgh; chemistry and philosophy.
Spallanzani, Italy; experimental philosophy, and natural history.
John Bacon, Surrey; excelled in sculpture.
- 1800 William Cowper; wrote poems.
Rev. Dr. Hugh Blair, Edinburgh; sermons.
- 1801 Cimarosa, Italy; excelled in musical composition.
- 1802 Dr. Erasmus Darwin, Nottinghamshire; wrote botanic and philosophical poetry.
- 1803 Dr. James Beattie, Kincardineshire; poetry and moral philosophy.
Klopstock, Germany; was author of the Messiah.
- 1804 Dr. Joseph Priestley, Yorkshire; wrote on natural philosophy, theology, politics, and miscellanies.
George Morland, London; was an admirable painter of rural scenes and ordinary life.
- 1805 Rev. Dr. William Paley, Northamptonshire; wrote upon theology and moral philosophy.
Frederic Schiller, Germany; tragedies, history, and miscellanies.
- 1806 Elizabeth Carter, Kent; poems, and a translation of Epictetus.
- 1808 Richard Hurd, bishop of Worcester; theological works, critical dissertations, moral and political dialogues.
Richard Porson, Greek professor at Cambridge; classical erudition and criticism.
- 1809 Anna Seward, Staffordshire; poems and letters.
- 1811 Richard Cumberland; dramatic pieces, essays, and epic poetry.
- 1815 Dr. John Coakley Lettsom, West Indies, the philanthropist; published medical and miscellaneous tracts.
- 1816 Richard Watson, bishop of Llandaff; wrote on theology and chemistry.
Richard Brinsley Sheridan, Ireland; dramatic pieces.
- 1817 Madame de Stael, Paris; politics and miscellanies.
- 1819 John Wolcot (called Peter Pindar), Devonshire; satirical and humorous poetry.
Augustus von Kotzebue, Germany; dramatic pieces, politics, and miscellanies.
James Watt, Scotland; flourished as an engineer.
- 1822 Berthollet, Savoy; was a philosophical chemist.
William Herschel, Germany; shone as an astronomer.
Antonio Canova, Italy; was a great sculptor.
- 1823 Anne Radcliffe; a romance-writer.
Thomas, lord Erskine, Scotland; an orator.
Robert Bloomfield; a self-taught poet.
Joseph Nollekens; a sculptor.
- 1824 George lord Byron; a great poet.
- 1825 Dr. Samuel Parr, Middlesex; an eminent divine and a celebrated scholar.
- 1826 Karamsin, Russia; a distinguished historian and poet.
David, France; a celebrated painter.
Talma, France; an admired performer in the tragic drama.
- 1827 Volta, Italy; an enlightened cultivator of natural philosophy.

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